



A GUIDE FOR STUDENT TEACHING

MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
TOWSON, MD.

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FOREWORD

There are three teaching courses offered to all the Towson students. Teaching I is a survey observation course. Two years ago a syllabus (now in the course of revision) was developed as a guide to Introduction to Teaching. Its keynotes are: observation of children in a normal classroom, then comparison by the student observer with his own built-up attitudes toward such work, then new generalizations formulated by the student observer to fit the present type of school. In this course there may be participation in teaching by some students, very simple elements of teaching. The course is given to all entering students during their first semester.

Teaching II is another observation-participation course but with more definite preparation for individual teaching on the part of all students and more opportunities for all students to practice the teaching act. This short course, a unit covering five full consecutive days is given in the Freshman Year, during the second semester.

Teaching III is the course or term in which an entire semester is spent by each student in practice centers in two nine-weeks' experiences. All the hours are devoted to the practice of teaching - whether the teaching be done by the student herself, by another student teacher (for there are usually two teachers assigned to a class) or by the training teacher.

This new bulletin - A Guide to Student Teaching - endeavors to formulate for the student some guiding principles for all the factors with which the student must deal when performing the teaching act. It must be remembered, however, that such a series of generalizations is not viciously academic, but is simple and pragmatic, and follows attempts at formulation of principles by the students themselves during their two previous teaching experiences. Our great sin in education generally, all over the country, is that the many classroom teachers are so busy teaching, they fail to educate. The aim in a vital, planning, normal school is to train students to work with the minds of children--observing, evaluating, and redirecting mental processes. "How minds behave" or "minds in the making" might be a good sub-title for this bulletin.

The present manual is intended for the use of all concerned with the final course in student teaching. Every member of the faculty assists in the supervision of the student while teaching, and in planning the content subjects with which she is equipped for her center. Every student takes the course. So large a group can work more effectively if there is some written statement of principles, objectives, and activities to which all may turn as a common point of reference. In the first typing The Guide was the work of the supervisors, and teachers of training. The entire faculty, through a revision committee, is more directly responsible for the first revision, which was done in the summer of 1931. Another year's experience with it now brings it closer to the goal of its representing the point of view of the entire faculty, which this second revision will show.

The plan of coordination of theory and practice in operation at Towson has largely determined the contents of The Guide. Because units of work are prepared by the students under the direction of the subject matter specialists in the subject matter courses and later taught by the students in the training centers, the discussion of planning, teaching, and recording, for instance, takes character from the conditions brought about by the coordination plan. Similarly, the co-operation between the normal school faculty and the supervisory and administrative staff in the field has influenced the discussion of the last chapter.

The Guide should serve the desirable end of promoting appreciation for the value and high status of the training teacher and of the student teaching term.

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GENERAL BACKGROUND OF THE COURSE

Chapter IPrinciples Underlying the Administration
and Content of Student Teaching

The principles which have determined the course in Student Teaching have been outlined in two divisions: Administration and Content. It is important that such differentiation be made in order to be able to distinguish clearly between problems of organization and problems concerned with the materials of instruction. An organization may be perfect and yet fail because it lacks substance. Likewise, rich content may be ineffective because of poor machinery. The ideal, of course, is perfect balance of the two. Checking the administrative plan and the content of the course against the principles here proposed should help attain such balance. It is important, however, always to bear in mind that the principles, themselves, are not, in any sense, final. They are presented for purposes of discussion. Their soundness should be put to every available test.

I. Principles Underlying the Administration
of Student-Teaching

(1) Student-teaching should be the focus of coordination of the whole normal school program. The materials of the courses given at the normal school should function directly in the training centers. The results in the training centers should, in turn, enrich and modify the normal school courses. Theory and practice work hand in hand in the training centers. This principle finds application particularly in the planning and carrying out of units of instruction. (Chapters II, V, XII).

(2) Student-teaching should be so administered that it will be comprehensive in scope. This principle implies that a student should be free from all other normal school requirements during the period of student-teaching in order that he may participate in all activities - school and community - related to a teacher's work (Chapters II, VI, XI, XII).

(3) Student-teaching should be so administered as to admit of differentiation. Such differentiation includes length of the student-teaching term, the term or terms in which student-teaching is done, the sequence and kinds of activities undertaken, the types and ages of the children taught, the amount and supervision needed, and the amount and kind of kind of/exploration conducted by the student. Flexibility in administration is essential if the responsibility for meeting the needs of individual students is accepted (Chapters II, XI).

(4) Student-teaching should be carried on under fair and normal conditions.

Training centers should be selected with great care.

(5) There should be a small number of students in any given training center.

The value of this is self-evident. The fewer the students at a center, the more responsibility and practice can be given each student though the absolute number with which best results can be secured has not been determined (Chapter II).

(6) Teaching should begin as soon as possible after the students come to the training center. Students have had continuous contacts with children since the beginning of their work at the normal school. They come to the centers with plans carefully made. They have had opportunity to visit the center while they were making the plans. They come ready and eager to work. They should be encouraged to begin teaching on the first day (Chapters II, VII, VIII).

(7) Student-teaching should be adequately supervised. The supervision should include that of the training-teacher immediately in charge; of the subject matter instructors, particularly those who have taught the students prior to his student teaching period; of the instructors in education courses; of the supervisors and directors of student-teaching (Chapter II).

II. Principles Underlying the Content of Student-Teaching

(1) Student-teaching should take into consideration the goals and practices of the local school system. The student should become familiar with courses of study, bulletins and all other material issued by the local school administration; should follow the rules and regulations of the school board; should learn to make

and keep records according to the forms in use in the school system (Chapters III, IV, V).

(2) Student-teaching should be a fusion of observation, participation, and individual, group, and class teaching. This principle opposes the idea of gradual induction into teaching through isolated sequential steps of observation, participation, and teaching. Instead, these are fused in carrying out any unit of instruction and may vary in order both according to the needs of the situation and of the student (Chapter II).

(3) Student-teaching should be comprehensive in scope. It should include all possible phases of classroom administration and instruction and of school and community activities. (Chapters II, III, XI, XII).

(4) Students should have practice in both short (daily or a single lesson) and long distance planning and recording. It is highly desirable that students be taught to take a long view ahead in planning. They come to the centers after having had some practice in such long distance planning. Their experience in the training centers will give additional skill as they are able to plan more specifically with the needs of children in mind. In addition, they are taught to plan from day to day, or from lesson to lesson, upon the basis of records made of the work as it progresses (Chapters II, IV, V, IX).

(5) Students should be given practice in analyzing and using such procedures as have resulted from scientific experimentation. The best that modern science has to offer should be kept before students. Each subject matter specialist should be responsible for circulating any findings in his field which should modify the practice in the centers (Chapters III, IV).

(6) Student-teaching should enrich and enlarge the body of principles which the student has started to develop in his other work at the normal school.

Desirable as it is to give students many and varied experiences in student-teaching, it is obviously impossible to give him more than a small body of experiences as measured against the size and complexity of the field of teaching. It is, therefore, of the greatest importance that the student take from his teaching experience

a working body of principles which will serve him in meeting new situations. By principles here is meant not only principles of education, but also principles peculiar to any given area of human knowledge and, perhaps, most important of all, those principles pertaining to the relations of man to man and of men to the universe, which make one's life philosophy (Chapters III, IV, V, IX, XI, XII, XIII).

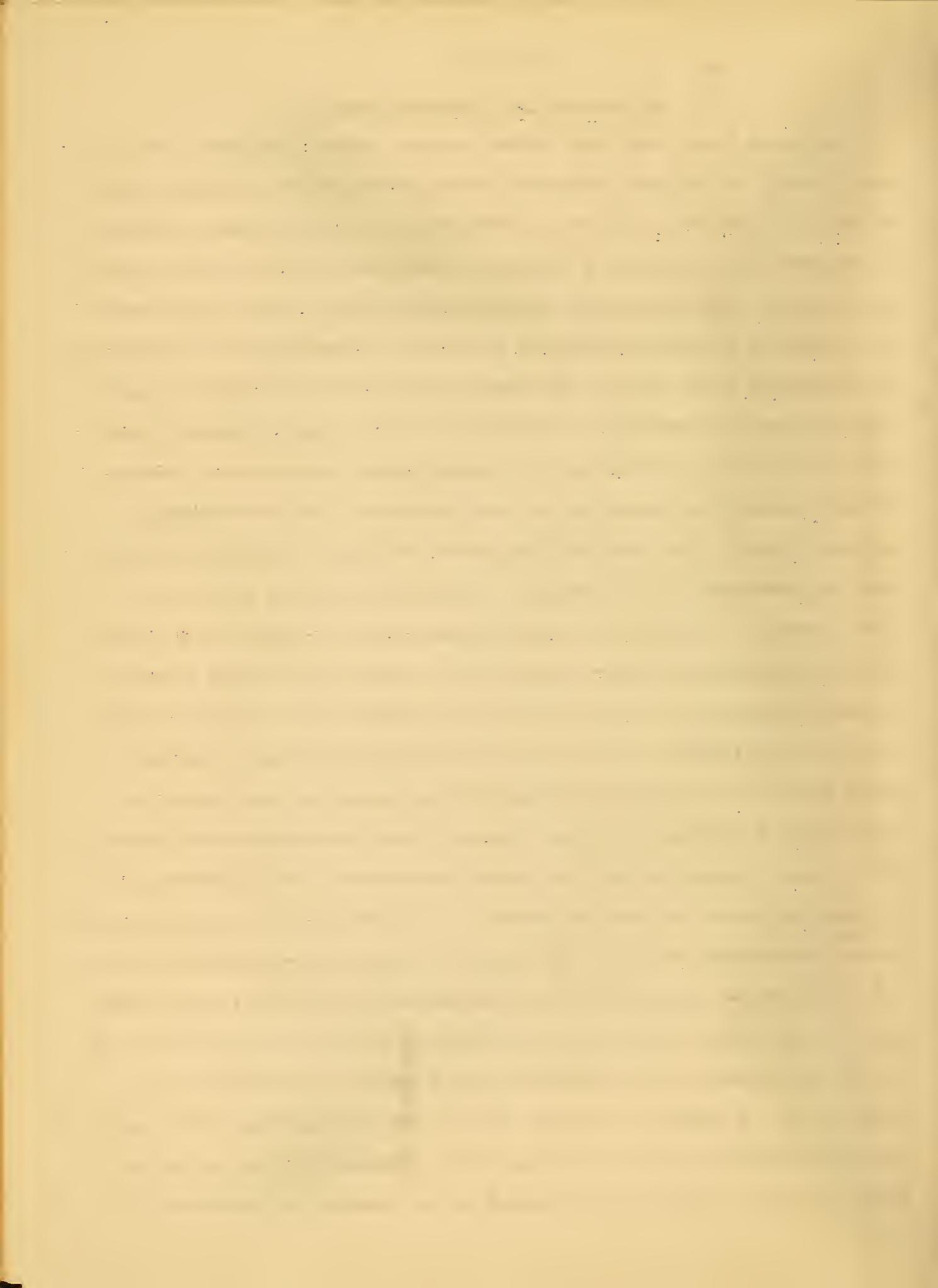
(7) Student-teaching should close with an analysis and evaluation of its experiences. Such an analysis and evaluation will make it possible for the student to use his experiences in meeting new situations (Chapters IV, XIII, XIV).

The principles have been stated in the foregoing. In addition, some little amplification has been made in order that a slight background for what is to follow might be provided. While the chapters in which certain principles are particularly elaborated have been indicated, it will be found that most of them operate, either directly or indirectly, in the whole student-teaching situation.

CHAPTER II

The Organization of Student-Teaching

The Towson Normal uses three student teaching fields: The Campus, the state, and the city. On the campus there are the nine classes of the elementary school available for practice; in the state, there are from 20 to 24 classes (according to the need) in 11 schools in 3 counties; in Baltimore City, there are 24 classes in 12 schools. These classes are termed training centers. Each training center is in charge of a training-teacher who is directly responsible for the supervision of the students in his center. The campus training centers are under the general administration and supervision of the Principal of the Campus Elementary School, who negotiates with the Principal of the Normal School on all matters affecting the administration and supervision of these centers and their relationships to the Normal School. The county training centers are under the general administration and supervision of the Director of Rural Education and the Supervisor of County Practice. The Director of Rural Education negotiates with county administrative and supervisory officers and with the Principal of the Normal School on all matters affecting the administration and supervision of the county training centers and their relationships with the county systems of education and the Normal School. The Supervisor of County Practice shares with the Director of Rural Education all responsibilities attached to the administration and supervision of the county training centers. The general administration and supervision of the city training centers is under the Director of City Practice and the Instructor and Supervisor of Kindergarten-Primary Education. The Director of City Practice negotiates with the city administrative and supervisory officers and with the Principal of the Normal School on all matters affecting the relationships of the city training centers to the city administrative and supervisory officers and to the Principal of the Normal School. A Supervisor, who also gives a course in the Normal School called Kindergarten-Primary Education (a course showing integration of various subject matter contents), shares with the Director of City Practice all responsibilities



attached to the supervision of the city training centers. All instructors in the Normal School assist, in so far as their schedules permit, in the supervision of their particular subject matter fields in the training centers and are in close touch with all directors and supervisors of the students while they teach. The coordination of the work of the training centers and the courses given at the normal school is one of the most important policies operating in the training of the student. A committee on Teacher Training has for its personnel the principal of the Normal School, the two directors of practice, the two supervisors of practice, the principal of the elementary school, and the instructor who gives both the Teaching I course known as Introduction to Teaching and the Teaching IV course known as Modern Trends in Education. This committee meets once a month or oftener upon call of the principal of the Normal School; its definite function is to plan a permanent continuing functioning of the spirit and work of the co-ordination and integration principles.

In the first semester of the Freshman year students experience their first teaching course entitled Introduction to Teaching (Teaching I). In this course they observe once each week in the various grades of the Campus Elementary School, make careful records of their observation, and carry on conferences with their instructor and the grade teacher concerning the work observed. In the second semester of the Freshman year all students have a brief teaching course, termed "Freshman Participation" or Teaching II. For one week each student leaves his classes at the Normal School, and both observes and participates in the teaching at the practice center to which he is assigned. Both of these courses involve observation and analysis of teaching and in the latter the students begin their actual teaching of children.

The third teaching course, Teaching III, occurs in the Junior and Senior years and adds to the previous course the responsibility inherent in teaching over an extended period of time. A half semester (nine weeks) may be spent in a primary center in the junior year and another half semester in a different intermediate center in the senior year, or vice versa. In either case each student

has nine weeks of training in both an intermediate and a primary grade with nearly a year's opportunity for study and growth between the two experiences.

In the semester just preceding each of these teaching experiences (Teaching III) students are assigned to the centers in which they will practice. Each one prepares a unit for his practice center as a part of one of his courses taken at this time. The steps in the preparation of this unit are outlined as follows:

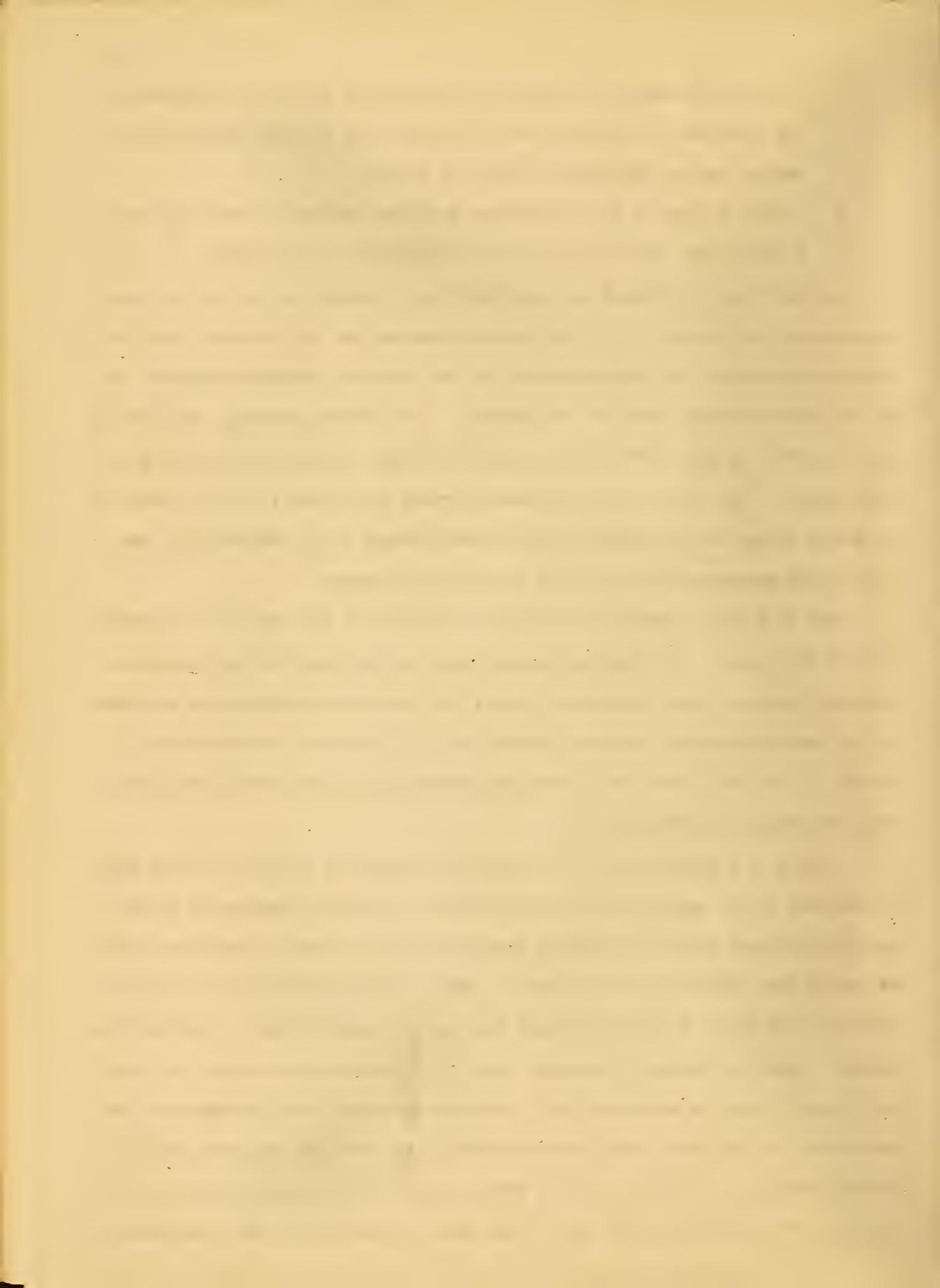
1. Training-teachers and professionalized subject matter instructors teaching the students during any semester prior to student teaching meet in conferences for the purpose of selecting topics for units to be prepared for teaching in the succeeding semester. Such topics are chosen from the courses of study followed in the training centers.
2. Students visit the training centers for the purpose of discussing their plans with the training-teachers in order that they may gain such knowledge of the children and of the environment as will make the unit to be prepared applicable, to the particular class they will teach.
3. The units are prepared in connection with the appropriate subject matter courses under the direction of the subject matter instructors, the two or three students assigned to one center working on the same unit. Several instructors may share in guiding the preparation of these units.
4. The students teach the units in the training centers under the direction of the training-teachers, keeping records of the work as it progresses.
5. Subject matter instructors who directed the preparation of the units expect to see each unit while it is being carried out through, at least, one visit to the student in his assigned center.
6. Directors, supervisors of student teaching, and training teachers observe students at work, give help to them, conduct conferences, and confer with subject matter specialists.

7. Training teachers and students send records of the unit as carried out and comments to the directors of training who, in turn, confer with the subject matter instructors about the results.
8. Copies of some of the outstanding units and records of their use are filed in the library for study by both faculty and students.

The unit might be termed the major activity. Perhaps an hour or two hours a day may be set aside for it. The training-teacher and the students share in it. Sometimes one takes the responsibility for the teaching, sometimes another. It may be that one student will be responsible for carrying through one phase of the work with one group of children, while the other students are concerned with other groups. This will not be discussed further here since it will be taken up in detail later, but it needs to be mentioned because it is indicative of the cooperative character of the work at the training centers.

What is done in carrying out the major activity is done with all the other work of the center. The training teacher maps out the work with the students. Subjects that are taught separately, apart from the major activity are allocated by the training-teacher either to himself or to the students working under his direction. So it is with other class responsibilities, with school activities, and with community activities.

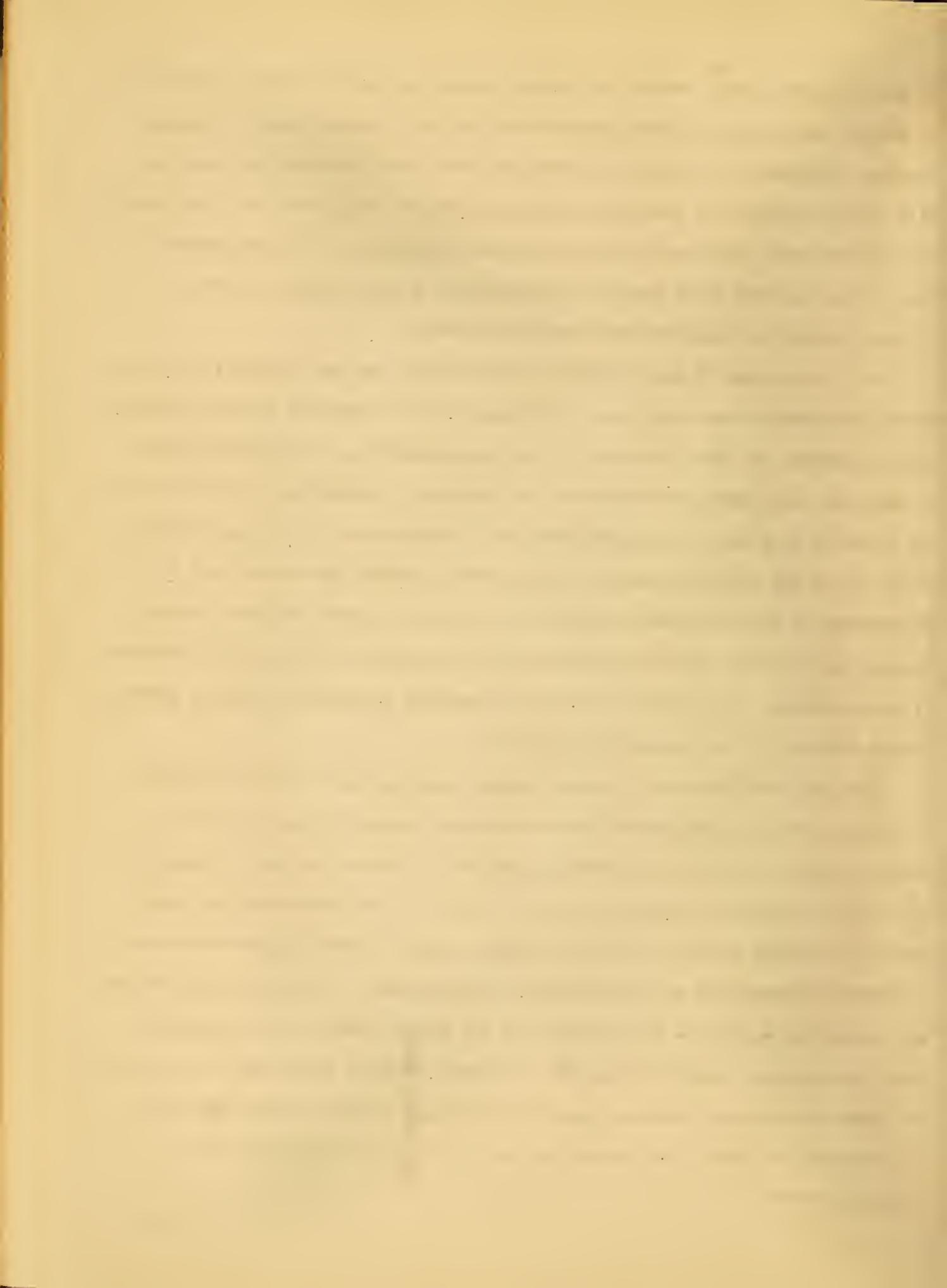
Where does a student start? How much work should he carry? How long should he continue in any one activity? What variety of teaching experiences should he have accomplished before the term is completed? These questions are often asked. To answer them definitely is impossible. What is done depends entirely upon the strengths and needs of the student and the needs of the children at the training center. There is nothing to indicate that it is best for all students to start with a small group of children, or by teaching spelling, or by attending to the ventilation of the room. Nor is there anything to show that the work should be divided equally as to time, nor that every student should teach arithmetic, for instance, for one-third of the time. But there is some reason and some foundation



in psychological law in having each student begin with that activity in which he, by special aptitude, or special preparation, or both, is most likely to attain success. Similarly, it would seem better to start with something that carries with it the adventure of teaching and allow matters of daily routine to be worked side by side with the larger responsibilities. Something of the same nature is true of the children to be taught; the needs both of the students and the children should be considered and adaptations made.

As to the amount of work a student should carry, one can only say: No more and no less than he can carry well. How long should he continue in any activity? This is perhaps the most difficult of the three questions. He should not leave it until he feels some satisfaction in his success; he should not stay so long on one piece of work that other experiences will be neglected. This type of organization calls for constant planning, assignments, planning adjustments and re-adjustments by the training-teacher and the student in order that each student may get the best and widest experiences with consideration of his needs and those of the children. Intelligent techniques in handling children and subject matter should result. It is a transmitting process.

How much more ^{is} expected in Senior student teaching than in Junior student teaching? Obviously the second experience should provide for an increase in responsibility for the total teaching situation; it should enable the student to refine his techniques, enlarge his special abilities, and strengthen his weaknesses; it should acquaint him with a greater range of curriculum materials and with more understanding of administrative organization. Much of the exact content of this second experience will depend upon the exact content of the student's first experience. Records of his Junior student teaching activities will need to be taken to his Senior teaching center so that each student's experience may be supplemented, balanced, and rounded out in this the most responsible of his teaching courses.



Suggestions to Students

1. Think through the kinds of contacts you should have during your student-teaching experiences with: The training-teachers, the director and supervisor of practice; the subject matter instructors who visit you; the principal of the Normal School. Try to define your relation as a student-teacher to each.
2. Try to know as many students teaching at other training centers as you can. Exchange ideas and experiences.
3. Check the preparation you made beforehand for teaching in your present center. Try to fill in the gaps.
4. Compare this chapter with Chapter I. Indicate the parts of the present chapter which are applications of the principals given in Chapter I.

Chapter III

Aims of Education

I. Aims of Education are here defined in a broad sense.

The word "aim" has been used by educators with a variety of meanings.

In the interests of clear expression it has been agreed to use the word in the large sense indicated by Mead.¹

... "Throughout this book the term aims will be used to indicate the very broad and comprehensive purposes of an entire educational system, e.g., the conception of culture in the educational system of the United States, or the purposes of a state system to improve moral character."

And again in differentiating aims from other educational terms Mead emphasizes the bigger definition in saying:

... "The aims are great social conceptions, covering large masses of people...."²

No doubt other definitions of aims might serve as well but for the present we shall accept the term in its broadest sense and reserve purposes, objectives, and goals for other specific uses.

II. International agreement as to Aims of Education is as yet in its earliest stages.

Attempts to define aims by any group larger than a national state have been fragmentary and not truly representative. Furthermore, the idea that nations might work together on universal problems of social betterment is a product of the present century and, as such, is far too young to have borne much fruit. Dr. G. S. Counts has stated aims of education as conceived in various times and places:

Social Control - Primitive peoples
 Self-Conscious nationalism - Fascist Italy and Japan
 Imperialism - Philippines, Posen and Georgia
 Class domination - Nineteenth Century Prussia and England
 Individual success - United States
 General enlightenment - Denmark
 Social revolution - Russia ³

¹ Mead: Supervised Student Teaching, p. 20

² Ibid: p. 23

³ Counts, George S. - in course, Education and Nationalism, given at Teachers College, Columbia University, Summer, 1930.

Professor I. L. Kandel similarly voices the great diversity of aims among the nations of the world:

"In France the aim of education is to secure the citizen loyal to republican principles and imbued with an appreciation of her national culture; Germany looks for the self-reliant, resourceful citizen, active and initiating, and loyal to the principles of the new democracy; England aims to develop the character and personality of the individual on the Platonic theory that if the individual is properly educated, the welfare of the state is assured; Russian education is directed to the productive of loyal Communists, and Italian, of loyal Fascists. In each country the aim of the state appears to be clear and education is adjusted to that aim...."

These thoughts indicate how very far from the present is the day when the nations will be united by a common aim for the education of their peoples.

The work that such men as Counts and Kandel, and their co-workers in the International Institute, are doing to bring about contacts among those working in education should eventually help to achieve such common purposes. Perhaps study of the educational philosophies of the nations set forth in the 1929 Yearbook of the International Institute will leave a residual which can be accepted by all nations as an aim, however far removed from its current practice may be.

The closest attempt yet made at an expression of what might be termed an international aim of education is found in the proceedings of the fifth world conference of The New Education Fellowship held at Elsinor, Denmark, in August, 1929. The following quotations are significant:

"Childhood, both as an actual period of living, and as a period in which the foundations of a sane and useful adulthood are laid, is but imperfectly understood. It is being increasingly realized that each individual is essentially creative as well as receptive and cooperative. By the combined efforts of all those who are approaching the problems of education in this faith, it is hoped that the way to release to constructive ends, the powers latent in every human being, may be discovered."

"The curriculum should provide direct contact with life situations, allowing for self-expression through activity. It should meet at every stage the physical, emotional, mental and spiritual needs of the child's developing nature. It should introduce him to the cultural heritage of the race and equip him with the fundamental knowledge necessary to modern social life. The child should be regarded as an individual capable of unique development and yet be prepared by social enterprises to take his



place in the community. Discipline which is rigid and compulsive should be replaced by the development of the sense of initiative and responsibility, through which self-discipline is attained."

"Education, scientifically founded and creatively directed, can lead to the establishment of a world commonwealth free from the evils of wasteful competition and from the prejudices, fears, and frustrations that are the inevitable outcome of an insecure and chaotic civilization. The co-operation of parents and teachers can liberate the children from the trammels of outworn convention and enable them to take their place as constructive citizens in a swiftly changing age."¹

Education in harmony with the needs of child nature, which respects individuality, which uses scientific findings, which holds to a forward look in this rapidly changing age, which develops social responsibility - these are the ideals animating the philosophy expressed by this internationally-minded group. Can every nation accept them? Probably in time. Meanwhile, there are thinkers in every country who have broken away from tradition. Wherever one meets them - England, Russia, Germany, Denmark, France, America - national barriers drop away and one is conscious of a world fellowship, an intellectual and emotional bond, which brings courage for the future.

III. No single aim seems sufficient for the process of education in America.

Has the United States a national aim of education?

..."The time has come when education in the United States must become more self-conscious than it has been. The one enduring aim that has persisted since the Revolution, equality of opportunity, is not an adequate guide for the development of a national system of education. Nor can it be claimed that the other aim, the development of "Republican Machines" has been satisfactorily met. There has, particularly during and since the War, been much talk of Americanization, especially of the immigrant, but true Americanization, whether of the immigrant or of the citizen, is not likely to be achieved until there is a better conception of what is meant by Americanism and the fundamental principles underlying American society. Until that is achieved American education is likely to be at the beck and call of new theories, changing devices, and uncertain objectives."²

It is evident that Kandel feels keenly the need of a better conception

¹ Towards a New Education. A Record and Synthesis of the Discussions of the New Psychology and the Curriculum, at the Fifth World Conference of the New Education Fellowship held at Elsinor, Denmark, in August, 1929. Edited for the N. E. F. by William Boyd, assisted by M. M. Mackenzie with an Introduction by Sir Michael Sadler, pp. 469-470.

² Kandel, I. L.: "The State and Education in Europe", Teachers College Record, Vol. XXXI, No. 8, May, 1930, p. 732.

"of what is meant by Americanism and the fundamental principles underlying American society", and that our traditional aim, equality of opportunity, is not adequate guide for the development of a national system of education.

The instability of American education that Kandel deplores would disappear if the interpretation of the unique function attributed to it by Dean Russell were generally accepted. In "The Educational Paradox: An American Solution",¹ Dean Russell begins by stating the paradox that he finds characteristic of all education; i.e., that it seeks to train youth "to rule and to be ruled, to lead and to follow". He goes on to show that the age-old method of resolving the paradox was accomplished through reinforcing class cleavage, by holding the masses in subjection through superstition and fear, and by assigning leadership to a military or ecclesiastical aristocracy. He contrasts with this the American method of resolving the paradox through aiming to develop the ability of every individual to lead and to follow, to create the leadership of the expert, and to incite the individual to voluntary subjection to such leadership.

A few lines from the article particularly forcible in their expression of aim are quoted:

"When we speak of leaders we are not thinking of an aristocratic class, but rather of experts capable of giving a particular service."

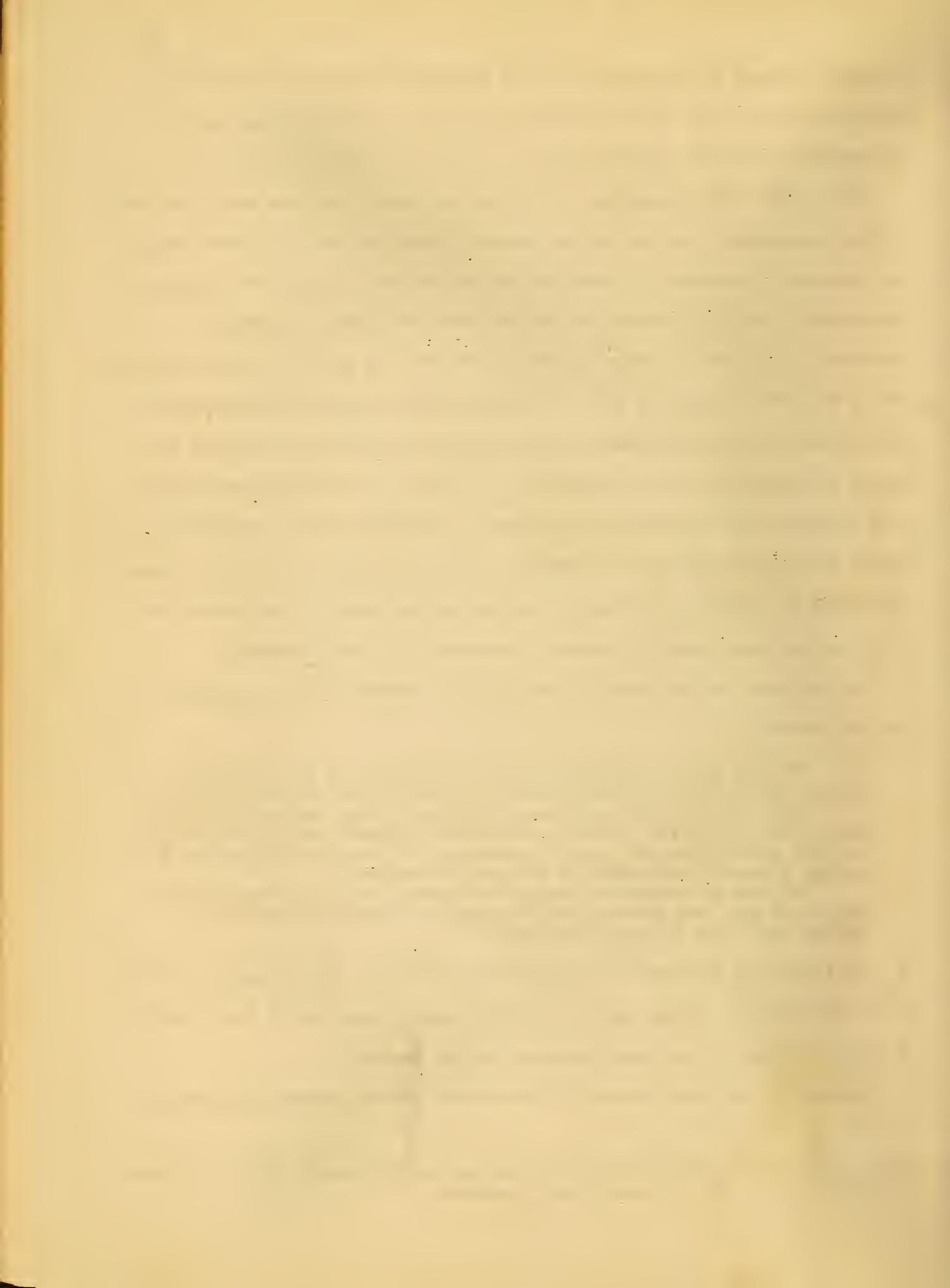
"And just as in the old world the schools have been used to attain their ideal of docile, obedient subjects of a monarchical state, so our schools are striving to train citizens who will voluntarily subject themselves to expert leadership in a democratic society."

"We have no schools set apart for leaders; all our schools are designed to help each student make the most of himself, to help him to follow wisely and to lead effectively."

It is difficult to conceive of an aim more inspiring in its challenge to youth, in its hope for the future, and in its fundamental conception of the principle of democracy than the aim thus expressed by Dean Russell.

Meanwhile, the most generally accepted nation-wide expression of aims is

¹ Russell, James Earl. "The Educational Paradox: An American Solution." *Journal of Adult Education*, No. 3, June 1929, pp. 237-245.



found in the well-known "seven cardinal principles" of the National Education Association:

1. Health	5. Citizenship
2. Command of the fundamental processes	6. Worthy use of leisure
3. Worthy home membership	7. Ethical character
4. Vocation	

They are broad in scope, but if all the educational systems of the United States were to work toward these aims, defining them more concretely according to environmental conditions and needs, progress would be inevitable.

IV. Various statements of aims by contemporary educators are quoted for the student's help.

The evolution of aims of education, is a long slow process. The National Council of Education published in 1931 a compendium of aims of education entitled "What are the Objectives of Education",¹ beginning with those expressed by Plato, Aristotle, and Comenius and tracing the statements of other famous educators up to the time of our own contemporaries. One cannot read the statements of aims without appreciating the fineness of thinking and the conception of education here represented. At the same time one is likewise impressed by the diversity of directions implied and the difficulty of unifying such expressions. In the first place, as has been so frequently noted, life is changing with amazing rapidity. A civilization largely agrarian is giving way to a civilization largely industrial. Our very means of subsistence are changing and causing changes in nearly every aspect of life. Hence, the institutions designed to serve the former social order must necessarily make many adjustments. Some analyses of the new era have already been made and these point out the need not only for the best development of the individual as an entity but also for the identification of the individual with society, so that interdependent living can go on at an increasingly higher level. Because present group living is extremely complex, education in and for the social group is

¹ National Council of Education, National Education Association, Detroit, February 26, 1931.

correspondingly complex. Thus various aims of education emerge and many educational institutions are concerned with this intricate problem. Several statements of aims are added to show further the trend of contemporary thought:

Hill --"To bring about desirable changes in thought, feeling, and action!"

Kandel --"To help individuals to slowly mature into personalities."

Briggs --"To help people to do better the things they are likely to do anyway."

Russell -- "To train citizens who will voluntarily subject themselves to expert leadership in a democratic society; to help each student to make the most of himself, to help him to follow wisely and to lead effectively."

Thorndike and Gates -- ..."The ultimate aim of education is to realize a condition in which human wants may be most fully satisfied. Human wants are given this position of supreme importance for the reason that anything, act, condition, or event in life has importance, value, interest, or significance only as it tends to affect - to satisfy or thwart - man's cravings. Human wants become the central concern of the process of education because they are the primary and essential factors in initiating and sustaining action of all kinds. Thinking, imagination, feeling, acting, forming and breaking habits are subordinate to the dynamic factors - which may be termed wants, urges, cravings, impulses, interests - which generate and maintain them. To change a want is to make the most fundamental of possible changes. Once a want is changed, all sorts of subordinate changes in thought, feeling, and action occur as a result."¹

Bode -- "In view of this situation the suggestion presents itself that our best clue to the educational problem lies in the concept of growth. Perhaps the most desirable and significant educational ideal for us to adopt is that of fostering intellectual and spiritual growth. If this be the case, then the aim of education, in so far as education can be said to have an inclusive aim, is to provide as adequately as possible for the creation of new aims. ...Life is a process in which the present is continuously enlarged and transformed. Present achievements become stepping-stones to further achievements; present appreciations prepare the way for further appreciations; present growth gives capacity for further growth. To set up fixed, inclusive ends in advance is to ignore the fact that life is too varied and too expansive to observe such limits. Our horizon retreats as we proceed, our aims and ideals change with the changes in our environment and with our growth in intellectual stature. It is precisely in this progressive self-expression, this enlargement of capacity, this continuous enrichment of experience, that life finds its fulfillment and its sufficient excuse for being."²

¹ Thorndike, E. L., and Gates, Arthur I. *Elementary Principles of Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1929. p.20.

² Bode, Boyd H. *Fundamentals of Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1921. p. 11-12.

Judd -- "The goals of teaching are now set in terms of the useful habits which pupils need for the higher achievements of intellectual and social life. There is no contentment with formal knowledge and formal skill in childish arts. Training is for the larger purposes of life. The matter can be formulated as follows: The modern school assumes that the pupil is ultimately to be introduced to all of the intellectual arts and to all of the practical skills which he is fitted by natural ability to take on. The goal of education is thus set in terms of a complete and broad education."¹

Bobbitt -- "The business of education today is to teach the growing individuals, so far as their original natures will permit, to perform efficiently those activities which constitute the latest and highest level of civilization. Since the latter consists entirely of activities, the objectives of education can be nothing other than activities, and since, after being observed, an activity is mastered by performing it, the processes of education must be the observing and performing of activities. The curriculum is that performance of the activities in their earlier stages out of which the matured performance grows."²

This group of statements, and others not included here, show the variety and diversity which characterizes such expressions. A student may find that one statement leads to clearer thinking for him than another. After further thought and experience he is urged to focus upon those which best point out education direction for him.

¹ Judd, Charles H. "Some Constructive Principles of Reorganization." Elementary School Journal 23: 413-22, February, 1923.

² Bobbitt. Summer School Course, University of Chicago, 1932.

Chapter IVPrinciples of Learning and Teaching

I. The scope of educational literature necessitates the statement of essential principles.

The literature of education has become a large and comprehensive body of material. Educational experiment and philosophy have uncovered whole areas of truth in the realm of education. Practice "in the field" has led to the acceptance of many ideas concerning good current practice. The process of enlarging and refining educational thought and practice will probably go forward faster in the future than in the past. As this body of material grows it is more and more important that one reduce much of it to a few essential ideas which can be held in mind and used daily. These become, then, a working body of principles for the student of education.

This process of concentrating many varied ideas into clear statements is slow and laborious. A typical group of senior students at the end of its student teaching experience attempted to state for itself a few principles of education that it believed and had found useful. Quite a long period of deliberation was taken up in discussing, clarifying, and formulating the familiar idea that "learning is an active process". Simple though this statement is its implications are profound. But only after going over the ground and seeing the opportunities as well as the dangers latent in such a truth does the student see its magnitude.

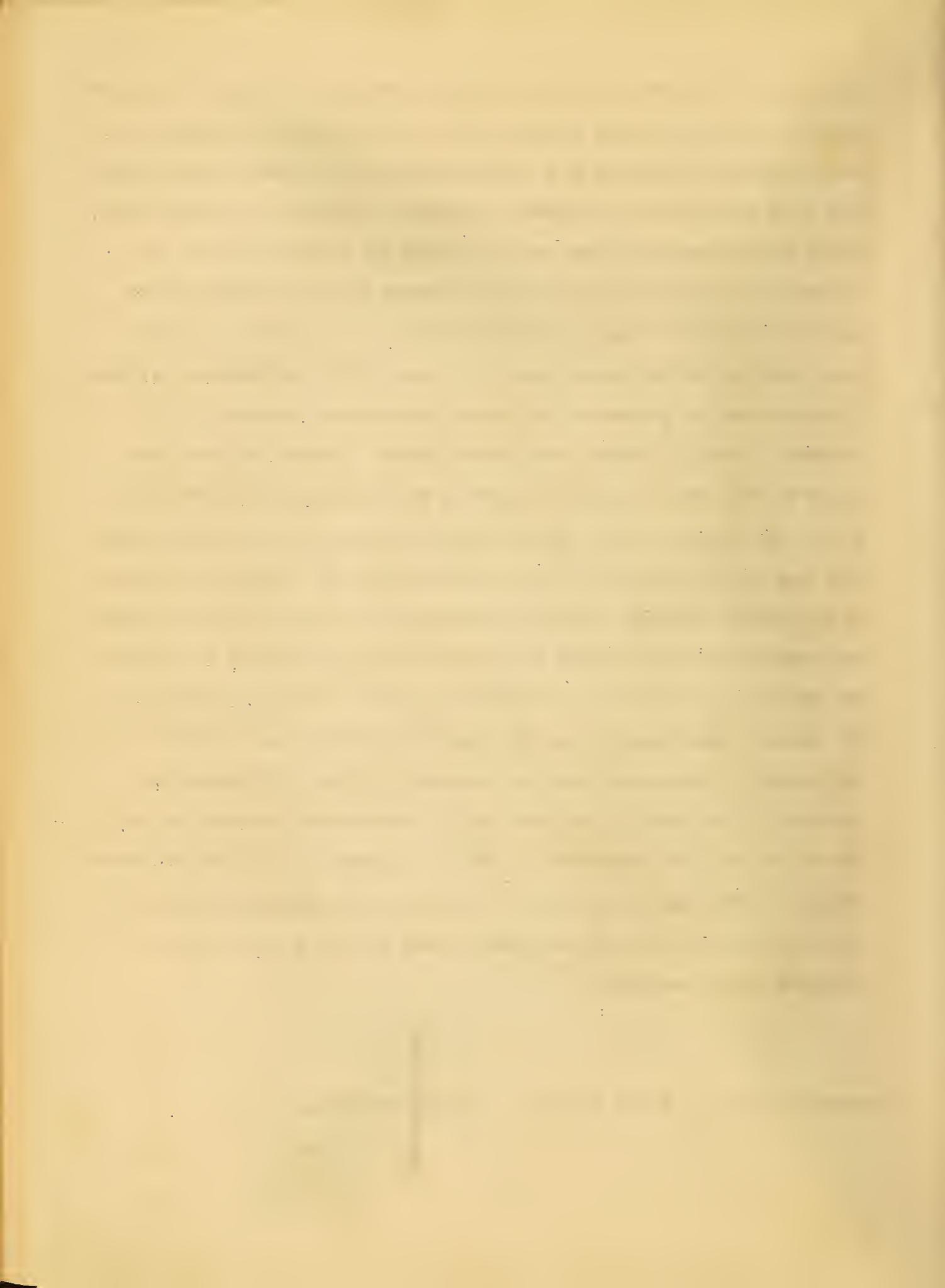
II. A tentative definition of "principle" is set up for consideration.

Many authors in the field of education treat principle in some way but nearly every author assumes a different definition of the word "principle". A group of faculty members in stating the principles suggested in this chapter found it necessary to set up a limiting definition of the term. This committee also found it helpful to keep in mind that education is guidance in

activities to gain development and to make adjustments according to standards.¹

In the interests of clarity it was decided to use for present purposes the definition that a principle is a general statement about human learning based upon truth from biology, psychology, sociology, philosophy, and other fields, tested through experience, and used as a guide for further practice. In testing out each principle then, it is necessary first to identify it with one of the fields of science or with philosophy. It is seen at once that many principles bridge across several of these fields. For example "Training is harmful when it precedes or follows the appropriate readiness to be trained" is true of learning from several angles. Children who have been taught to walk before they were "ready" to walk present one illustration of this on the physical plane. Forcing immature six year old children to read, when they were not mentally ready, provides us with an example in the field of psychology. Likewise, deferring instruction in reading long after reading readiness has been attained by an alert five year old child is wasteful and warped. Some principles as stated are closely allied to sociology, as for instance "Improvement in society takes place through the activity of individuals". Others seem quite philosophical in trend. In testing each principle by the terms of the definition it is necessary, secondly, to see what it derives from experience and that it is usable as a guide for future practice. After fulfilling each of these tests each principle should throw some light upon how the learning process takes place. In this hope the following list is submitted.

¹ Hetherington, C. W. School Program of Physical Education, 924.



III. Some principles of teaching and learning thus defined are presented.

1. Our physical, mental, and emotional natures are bound together.
2. Life consists of continuous adjustments.
3. Learning is active, continuous, specific.
4. Learning capacity is a product of racial experience.
5. Training is harmful when it precedes or follows the appropriate readiness to be trained.
6. A condition of satisfaction is essential for normal growth.
7. The educative process is at all times conditioned upon the learner's interests, capacities and emotions.
8. Guidance should be given only at the point that the learner can not go forward independently, for, teaching is efficient to the extent that children feel their needs, meet them, and measure their own growth.
9. Simultaneous and concomitant learnings are always present.
10. Because no two persons are alike, education needs to provide for individual differences in learning.
11. Learning in different fields involves techniques peculiar to each field.
12. Some learning takes place best when an individual works alone, some when he works as a member of a group.
13. Effective learning occurs best when teacher-pupil relationships are wholesome.
14. Education, desirable or undesirable, goes on as a permanently continuing process in home, church, school, and community.
15. Improvement in the race takes place through the activities of its individuals.
16. A rich and varied environment stimulates the development of well-rounded personalities.
17. Activity is valuable when it leads to further desirable activity.

IV. Other "keys" to the organization of principles are suggested.

Even a brief list of seventeen principles may at times be cumbersome to hold in mind and the student may wish to organize his principles around some such key ideas as those presented by Dr. Bonser. In education he

recognizes these principles:

1. Freedom to develop naturally must be made.
2. Interest should be the motive of all work.
3. The teacher is conceived as a guide and leader.
4. There should be scientific study of pupil development.
5. Greater attention must be given to all that affects the child's physical welfare.
6. Cooperation between school and home, to meet the needs of child life" is almost an essential.

The student may wish to use some other basic idea around which to group his principles. Though individuals will organize their principles differently it is essential that each have his own set of principles for constant use in planning and evaluating his work.

Chapter VGeneralizations

I. Generalizations defined and illustrated

The day after Thanksgiving holidays the following conversation was heard and recorded in a first grade training center:

Edgar: I went to New York for Thanksgiving. You know that's a long way off.

Hubert: Oh! That isn't far away.

Edgar: Oh! It is, too. It took us a whole night to get there.

The conversation continued until the two boys started to talk about movies and actors and where they lived.

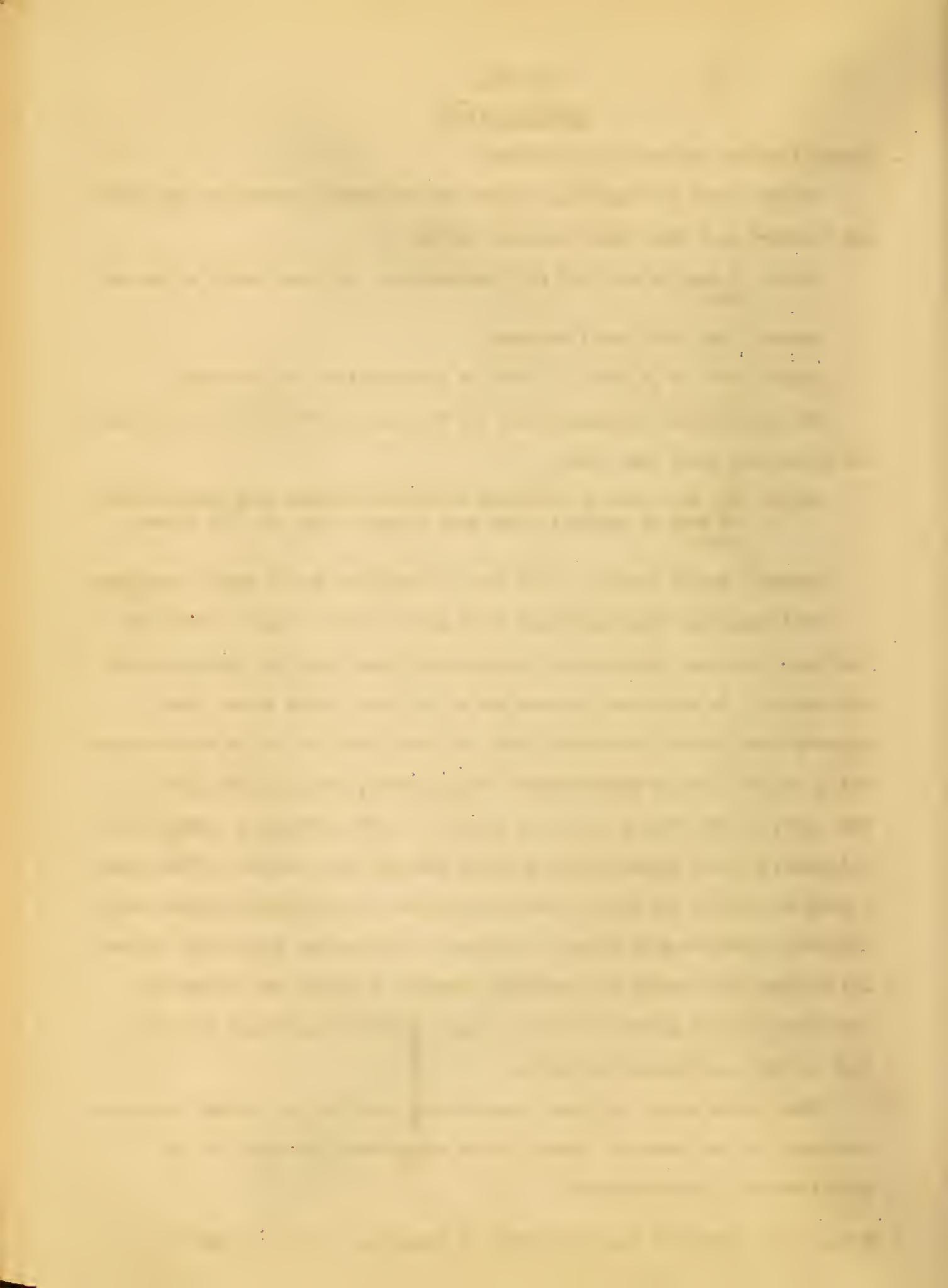
Edgar: Oh, they live in Hollywood and that's farther away than New York. It took my father a whole week to get there. So it's a week away.

Hubert: That's nothing. I've been to China and that's three weeks away.

What important idea were these first grade children using? Obviously, they were comparing distances and travel-times from their own experience and information. In their own language and as yet in a simple manner these children were "feeling the edge" of an idea with which all of us are concerned and by which all of us are effected. "The universe, including the earth, is very old", is the idea as stated by an adult.¹ With additional study, travel and maturity these children will probably enlarge their meaning of this idea. A cross-section of any group of adults, moreover, will probably show as many degrees of understanding of such a statement as there are individuals present. And further, each person will probably continue to modify and clarify his conception of this generalization with each pertinent experience ever after. Such an idea can scarcely be static.

What is the nature of these potent ideas, which we are calling "generalizations" for the present? Dewey gives a key answer, we think, in his definition of a generalization:

¹ Craig, G. S. Tentative Course of Study in Elementary Science, Grade V, p. 4



"A generalization is such not in virtue of its structure or bare content but because of its use or function. An idea becomes general or a principle in process of fruitful application to the interpretation, comprehension, and prevision of the particular facts of experience."²

If there are certain continually functioning ideas which serve as this definition points out, what are they? If we knew what generalizations were basic to the best curricula, courses of study and much of school procedure would be set up in terms of their contribution to them.

II. Generalizations for each field determined upon by experts.

Several writers working on this problem by various methods have selected generalizations in their field.³ They constitute a valuable contribution. The faculty of the Maryland State Normal School at Towson has also set up the generalizations it considers important within each subject matter field. They are included in this chapter.

. GENERALIZATIONS BASIC TO SUBJECT MATTER FIELDS

Art

1. Art is not an outer product nor an outer behavior. It is an attitude of spirit, a state of mind which has its beginning in the individual, and demands for its own satisfaction and fulfilling a shaping of matter to new and significant form.
2. Art information provided at various levels and offered as there is a consciousness of the need, will enrich the impulsive and instinctive expression of thoughts and feelings in material forms.
3. Art understanding is, on the part of the artist, a knowing; on the part of the spectator, a seeing.
4. Art consciousness implies a sensitivity that comes with the ability to recognize the fitness of color, structure, form and other relations wherever they are seen.
5. Art discrimination is an awareness that is the result of a comprehension of design along with a comprehension of other qualities. Every act of discrimination is creative.

Bernice A. Brouwer
Marie M. Neunsinger

² Monroe, P. (ed.) *Ency. of Education*, Macmillan, 1911, Vol. III, p. 15.

³ Billings: *Generalizations in the Social Studies*, 1929

Billig: *Technique for Developing Content for a Professional Course in Science for Teachers in Elementary School*, 1930.

Craig: *Horace Mann Course of Study in Science*.



EnglishLiterature and Reading

1. (Literature contributes to one's understanding of life in all its manifestations.
 - (Literature seeks to reveal man's interpretation of the universe.
2. (Literature is one of the most valuable means to a mutual understanding of all nations.
 - (Literature helps to integrate society through its artistic expression of a race's experience.
3. (A beautiful book is the work of art most accessible to all through means of public libraries.
 - (Books present patterns of beauty most available to show dominant ideas and moods of every period.
4. (The opportunities for using and creating literature are increasing with the increase of leisure time in America today.
 - ("As a means of entertainment and education there is nothing to compare with reading and listening to words."

Eunice K. Crabtree
Alice L. Dunn

Language

1. Language is the medium of all thought exchange.
2. Enrichment of thought and refinement of expression are the bases of language power.
3. Thought and form aspects are inseparable in language growth.
4. Thoughts grow through actual experiences, through reading, and through contact with other minds in listening or exchanging ideas.
5. Good form grows through constant practice of correct usage at increasingly higher levels.

Helen C. Stapleton

Reading

1. Reading is a basic social need.
2. We learn to read and we read to learn.
3. Reading is the key that unlocks the printed records of what man thinks, feels, and does.
4. The interpretation of any selection is in proportion to the experiences of the reader.

5. Man's satisfactory adjustment to modern society demands facility in the interpretation of vast amounts of printed materials. This needs fundamental skill in silent reading.
6. Social situations frequently require adequate oral reading in order to share information or enjoyment.

Hazel L. Jones

Geography

1. Definite relationships exist between the natural environment and the activities of man.

These relationships are two-fold and involve "¹ an understanding of how geographic factors control the life of peoples, and in turn are used by them to achieve the necessities of life...Man and the earth on which he lives are a pair of influences ever acting and reacting on each other."

² "The broader this geographic base, the richer, more varied its resources, and the more favorable its climate to their exploitation, the more numerous and complex are the connections which the members of a social group can establish with it, and through it with each other....The polar regions and the sub-tropical deserts, on the other hand, permit man to form only few intermittent relations with any one spot, restrict economic methods to the lower stages of development, produce only the small, weak, loosely organized horde, which never evolves into a state so long as it remains in that retarding environment."

2. "The earth is an inseparable whole" whose parts are producing regions having "unity within themselves and similarity with other regions". To intelligently understand anyone region, it must be considered in relation to the whole.
3. The totality of man's environment is complex. The factors of the physical or earth environment combine to make the conditions for plant and animal life, or the organic environment. Both of these help to create an economic environment. In addition to these three, man is also influenced by his social environment.
4. The laws of nature operate to constantly make changes in the physical environment. The rocks and landscape give evidence of changes in the part.
5. Through man's own development the social and economic environment are constantly changing.
6. Man's control of his environment is increasing, thus widening the environmental influences to which he is exposed, and upon which he depends.
7. There is an increasing interdependence of nations, based on the creation of a world environment and world contacts, made possible through the development of transportation and communication. Varying racial characteristics, differences in natural resources, and differences in stages of industrial development tend to increase this interdependence.

¹The proper Organization of Geography in American Education, by J. R. Smith -- J. C. Winston Company.

²Influence of Geographic Environment, by Ellen Semple, p. 53--Henry Holt and Co.

8. Geography furnishes the concrete background for the understanding of current happenings, for the explanation of the local environment, and for the appreciation and enjoyment of real and vicarious travel.
9. Maps express, through symbols, facts and relationships, and can be used to gain information.

Pearle Blood
Harriet A. Bader

Geography

A. Concepts

1. Geography is not something in a book.
2. Geography gives a cross-section of life today.
3. Geography gives insight into the mode of life of peoples of the earth and, by comparison and contrast, into our own habits of life.
4. Geography is more a matter of every day living than a body of organized knowledge.
5. Geography is largely a state of mind - an attitude toward life - seeking the causes for the things we see.
6. Geography is the understanding of the relationships of the physical environment and the human response.
7. Geography lends itself readily to educational purposes because it is rich with problems.
8. Geography is valuable as an educational subject because it touches so many branches of knowledge into which it can lead.
9. Understanding geographical phenomena is as essential as knowing geographical facts.
10. Geographical facts are valuable only in so far as they fit together into an integrated whole.
11. Geographical study is a matter of experiencing geography rather than the acquisition of isolated facts.
12. Geographical study involves descriptive picturing and reflective interpretation.
13. Detail study and general study must support each other.
14. Geography provides the opportunity for the vicarious participation in the world's work.

B. Generalizations

1. Geography is a science
2. Geography is the science of the interactions of man and the natural environment.

3. The inter-relationships of man and the environment are a dynamic unity.
4. The interaction of human and physical forces expresses itself in the regional character of the landscape.
5. The culture pattern reflects the stages of the control of the environment.

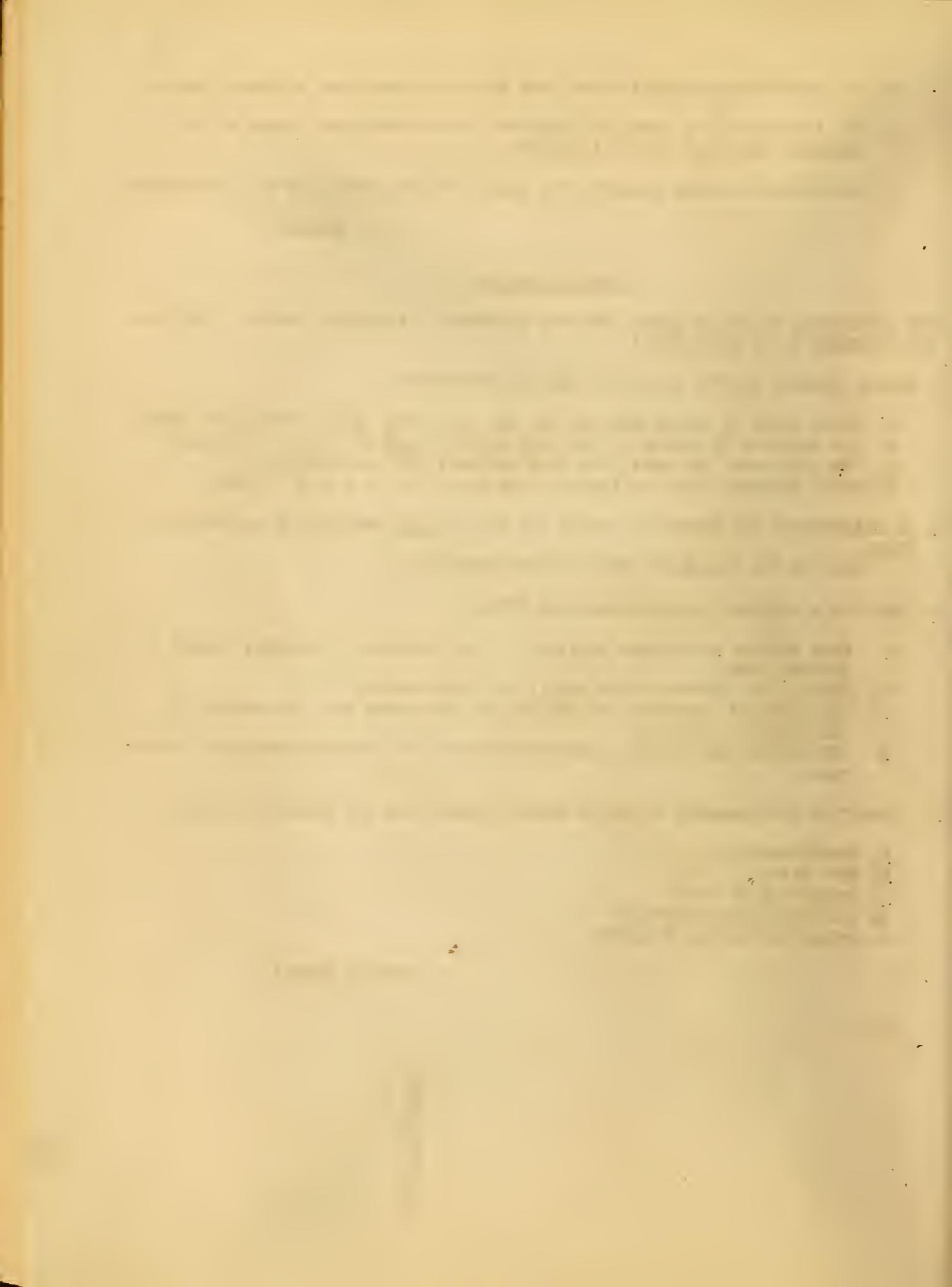
E. C. Walther

Health Teaching

(The statements or topics under the main statements illustrate merely. They are not intended to be inclusive.)

1. Health enables one "to live most and to serve best"
 - a. One's state of health affects the way one works, plays, feels and thinks
 - b. The standard of health is the best health possible for the individual
 - c. "To live most" one must work hard and must play wholeheartedly
 - d. One's responsibility to those around him is to be a good citizen.
2. In maintaining and promoting health one needs to do continually as well as to know.
This is the reason for daily health practices
3. There is a relation between cause and effect
 - a. Food affects growth and ambition, - food studies on animals, weight records, etc.
 - b. Ventilation affects one's ability to work readily
 - c. Exposure and isolation are factors in the spread and the control of communicable diseases
 - d. Preventions and cures of diseases need to be a definite relation to the cause
4. "Clean" in the language of health means freedom from the agents of disease
 - a. Sterilization
 - b. Safe water
 - c. Inspection of food
 - d. Isolation and quarantine
 - e. Sewage and refuse disposal

Anita S. Dowell



History

1. Social groups are interdependent.
2. Social communities, even when separated by time or space have many relationships. The fact that they are different is the natural result of conditions and environment.
3. The world and human institutions are not of yesterday, but extend far back into antiquity.
4. Human beings and society have attained their present status through a process of evolution.
5. The history of man shows the result of the relationship between man and his environment.
6. The present cannot be understood without recognizing its continuity with the past.
7. Historical concepts must rest upon concrete evidence.

Lena C. VanBibber
 Helen I. Cowan
 Harriet A. Bader

Music

1. Music is valuable as a means of individual and group expression.
2. Music provides opportunity for aesthetic expression.
3. Music is valuable as a means of social control.
4. Music provides for worthy use of leisure time.
5. The most vital musical experience is that gained through active preparation in singing and playing.
6. The opportunity to experience music should be offered to every child. Every child should have the opportunity to make the most of his musical endowment.

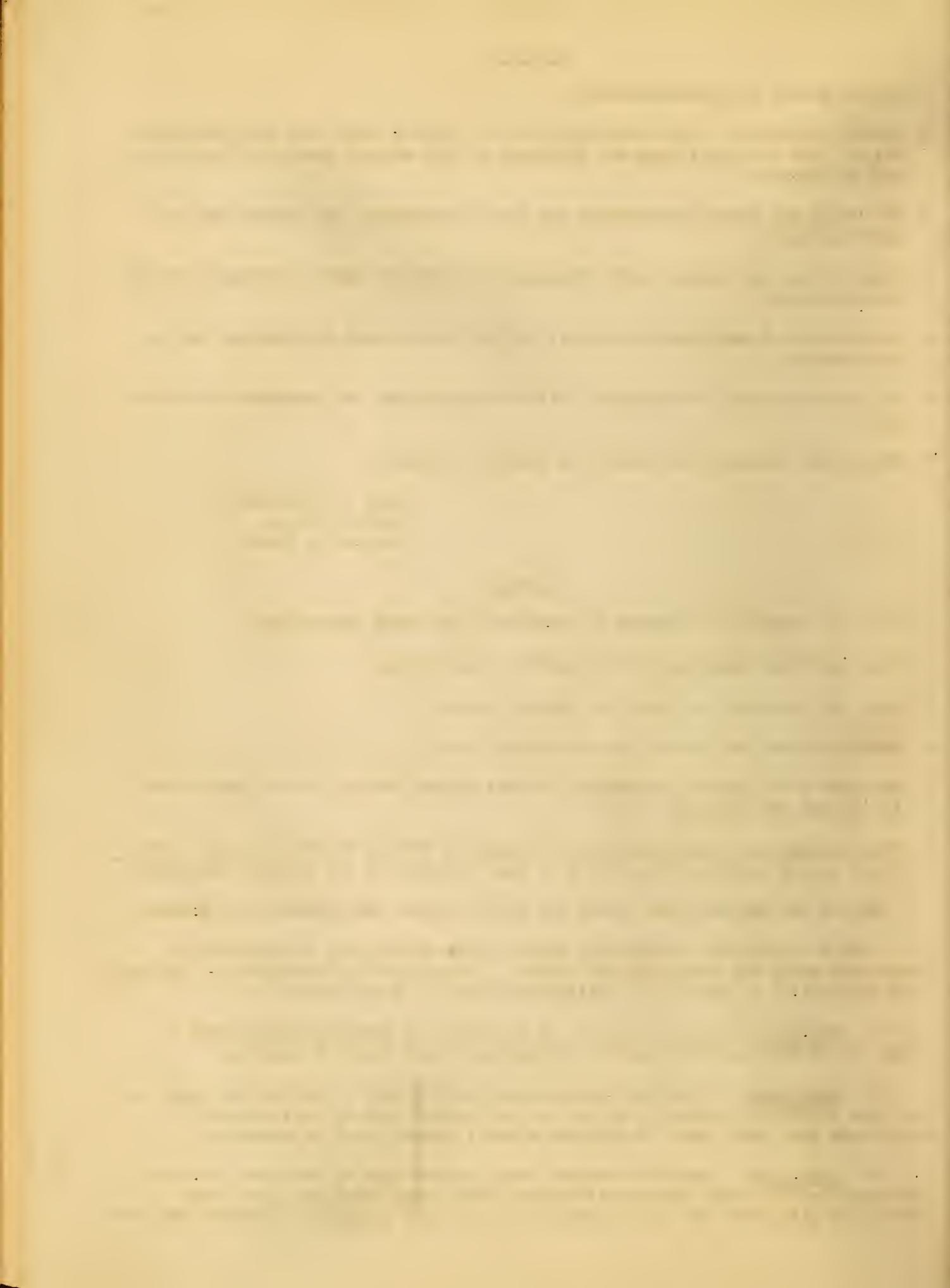
Quoted and adapted from "Music for Public School Administrators", Dykema:

"The contributions which music makes to the educational program may be summarized under the following six heads: 1. Physical; 2. Emotional; 3. Aesthetic (and spiritual); 4. Social; 5. Skill-developing; 6. Intellectual --".

1. Physical. Music, being one of the means of communicating solely by sound, is of the greatest value in developing a nice sense of hearing.

2. Emotional. If modern psychologists are correct in maintaining that our acts are determined primarily by how we feel rather than by what we know, it would seem that music must be assigned a still larger place in education.

3. Aesthetic. Aesthetic effects are a higher type of emotional effects. Emotional responses are those which result from associating the music with particular situations in life external to the music; aesthetic responses are those



which are confined to the contemplation of the music itself. The evaluating of music from a musical and an artistic point of view naturally makes us forget ourselves and our problems and thus gives the change and rest which we seek in art.

4. Social. Participation in making or listening to music tends toward friendliness and social intercourse.

5. Skill developing. In every stage, the use of the powers and skills developed in the production of music may be a source of pleasure to those who use them.

6. Intellectual. The performance of even simple music demands thinking and concentration that compare favorably with the effort required for mastering any subject. Eliot said, "Music is the best mind trainer on the list".

Emma Weyforth
Elma Prickett
Hazel MacDonald

Number

1. Number is a fundamental factor in the control and use of man's quantitative environment to the betterment of the human race.

- a. It is a device by means of which man introduces order and system in the world around him.
- b. Number enables him to measure with increasing precision
- c. The present state of refinement of our measuring devices is the result of a long evolutionary process.
- d. The increasing refinement of measurement makes man's adjustment to his physical environment easier.

2. As man's activities became more extensive and complex, the science of number developed in answer to these needs.

- a. "An exact and easily workable symbolism for the expression of ideas" has been provided.
- b. The fundamental processes, tables, and mechanical devices have greatly reduced the labor of computation.

3. Every human enterprise or activity that has a quantitative element or a value involves number.

- a. Number is essential in all social and economic institutions, such as the home, the school, trade, taxes, insurance, banking, etc.
- b. Number is basic in all industry: production, construction, transportation, distribution, etc.
- c. Number is basic in all work in science: invention and discovery.
- d. It is an important element in all art.

4. "Many ways of thinking are greatly facilitated by mathematics", as:

- a. Number gives practice in forming generalizations on practically acute data.
- b. It affords opportunity to see the relationship of one variable to another from very simple situations to the more complex.
- c. The solution of the problems of every day life calls for discrimination in the collection of reliable data and for the rational interpretation of this information.

- d. The systematic arrangement of data in tabular and graphic form aids greatly in its interpretation.
- 5. The functional aspect of number is tremendously potent in securing a liking for and an appreciation of the subject.

References:

L. J. Brueckner: "Some Major Themes Underlying Instruction, Journal of National Education Association, February 1932.
National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-Ninth Yearbook, 1930.

Mary Hudson Scarborough
Eleanor V. Orcutt

Physical Education

- 1. The vigorous total body play activities offer tremendous possibilities for desirable developments.
 - a. Organic power may be built
 - b. Neuro-motor skills may be mastered
 - c. Interpretative power may be built
 - d. Right impulses and attitudes may be acquired (Social and emotional)

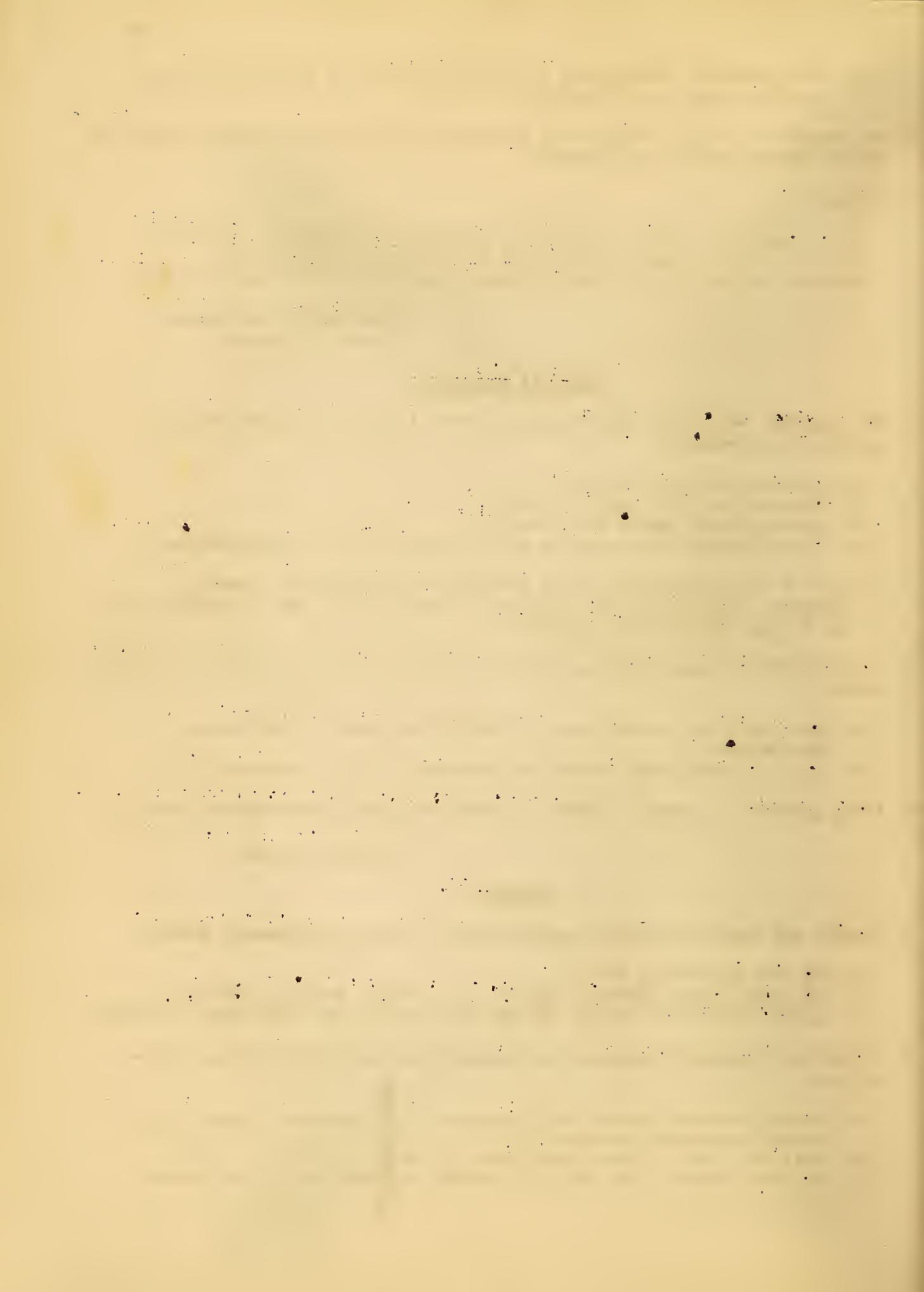
(Each of these possibilities has a definite contribution to health, character, citizenship, the wise use of leisure time, the rich full life, and social efficiency in general.)

- 2. Participation is absolutely essential in order to secure the desired developments.
 - a. Participation in many types of play is desirable for all around development.
 - b. Joy, happiness, and success are necessary for good results.
- 3. Adult guidance is needed in order to attain acceptable standards and levels.

Donald Minnegan

Science

- ✓ 1. Animals and plants which have become adapted to their environment survive.
 - a. All life comes from life.
 - b. All living things breathe, utilize food, remove wastes, reproduce.
 - c. Animals and plants vary in the way they prepare for unfavorable conditions.
- 2. Exhaustion of natural resources has implications that are not always self-evident.
 - a. Forests conserve surface soil, conserve water supplies, prevent floods, provide commercial products.
 - b. Birds help man to control many sorts of pests.
 - c. Man often destroys the balance of nature and must work to get nature back on his side.



3. A scientific point of view requires that one seek for the reasons underlying natural phenomena. Examples:

- a. Nature of evaporation and condensation - fog, rain, snow, ice
- b. Air pressure can do work
- c. Electricity can flow over a closed circuit
- d. Magnetism can be used to do work

4. The universe is a complex but orderly system.

- a. Nature works according to natural laws
- b. Laws are based on a cause and effect relationship that always operates in the same way.
- c. Man obtains an understanding of natural laws by intelligent observation, experimentation, thinking and reading.
- d. Man gains control of nature when he applies the laws of nature intelligently.

Minnie Medwedeff
Janet Nelson
Anita S. Dowell

III. How generalizations are used in teaching the child in the elementary school.

Having before us the generalizations deemed valuable by subject matter experts the elementary teacher asks the question, "How shall I use them?"

Again let us turn to Dewey for an answer:

"Generalization expresses the natural goal of instruction in any topic, for it makes a measure of economy and efficiency from the standpoint alike of observation, memory, and thought."¹

Let us emphasize the phrase "goals of instruction" in terms of which experience will be selected, thinking directed, information acquired, skills mastered, attitude modified. To attempt to teach such generalizations verbally would be futile. Providing dozens, even hundreds of opportunities for children to move forward toward these selected goals is the business of the teacher. This implies not only extending the experiences of children but also seeing that interpretations such as these come about. The two small boys with whom this chapter began will need to be so guided that gradually they will make their own generalizations and will use them in the understanding of new data and new experiences.

¹ Opus cited

With such dynamic controls each individual has some equipment for interpreting and living in a world that is big, complex, and ever-changing.

Chapter VIThe Relation of Pre-Service and In-Service Teaching

The pre-service and in-service education of a teacher are two parts of a continuous process. It is only through the closest articulation of the work of the normal school with the supervision in the field that any educational system can hope to be effective. Each needs to know what the other is doing. The normal school needs to work with the goals of the state and city educational systems in mind; the state and city administrations need to be familiar with the work of the normal school. Otherwise only waste of effort results.

In the Maryland State Normal Schools the state bulletins formulating goals in the various subject-matter fields, the courses being developed by Montgomery, Washington, Allegany, and other counties, the Baltimore County Course of Study, and the Baltimore City Courses of Study are in constant use in the professionalized subject matter courses and in the training centers. The current annual reports of the state and city are studied in the course: Modern Trends in Education and their Historic Origins, - in order that the students may become thoroughly familiar with the achievements, problems, and aims of the educational systems in which they will teach. Members of the faculty frequently attend supervisory conferences in the State and City, and at times, serve on committees for the revision of County and City courses of study.

Strong as is the bond between the school and the field resulting from the above practices, the peculiar strength of the articulation of the pre-service and the in-service education of the teacher is due in large measure to the strength of the supervisory systems of the state and city. With the special emphasis that each places upon helping the beginning teacher, the first years of actual teaching seem truly a continuation of the work of the normal school. The contacts between state and county supervisors and the training teachers - and the meetings of Baltimore City grade and subject supervisors and training teachers which give opportunity for the discussion of the needs of the graduates as seen by the supervisors in the field, make for coordination of effort. The detailed

records of the strengths and needs of individual students sent by the Normal School to superintendents make it possible for each school system to take up the work of the education of the teacher at the point where the efforts of the Normal School end.

What can the state and city administration expect of the Normal School graduate?

It seems only fitting that some attempt should be made to summarize the outcomes that have been indicated in The Guide as expected achievements of those receiving the normal school diploma. Of course, any such statement of achievements must be interpreted with due consideration of the natural variations in individual ability. Granting such, a graduate of the Normal School should, first of all, be able to and want to think. He will understand and use intelligently, prescriptions, patterns, plans and directions. He will desire to exercise his own thought power. He may know comparatively very little - he has had only three years of professional work - but he will have familiarity with sources of information and will have begun his own system of collecting, filing and using professional material. He will have a student's attitude. He will know something of his own limitations and will ask direct questions of his supervisor in his effort to get help. He will understand that he has made only a beginning in his preparation for teaching and will plan to go further. He may even be too eager to increase his education rapidly and may have to be urged not to carry a university course during his first year of teaching.

In the classroom he will be an observer of children, and a fairly good administrator of details. He will consider note-taking as an important technique of teaching. He will be familiar with the course of study and immediately, with it as a foundation, block off his year's work in large units. His daily plans will be made upon the basis of the previous day's work. His teaching will probably be sadly lacking in finish of technique, but, though he may show only a little grasp of finished technique, he will realize its importance and try to gain it. In the meantime, he will struggle manfully to adjust his teaching to the

principles he has developed. He will be happy at times over his successes, and at other times much discouraged. He will often need a professional friend.

If he finds himself in a large school he will be a cooperative person on the faculty; he will not gossip; he will not be a member of a clique; he will do unto others as he would have them do unto him; he will, by scrupulous attention to routine matters, help the machinery of the school run more smoothly. He will participate in faculty meetings, not obtrusively but professionally. He will throw his several talents into the extra-curricular activities of the school.

He will, if possible, live in the community in which he teaches. He will study the resources and needs of the neighborhood. He will make the life of the people his life. He will work actively in the parent-teacher association. Parents will find a welcome at his classroom door. He will use their talents in work with their children. He will be their educational leader.

Of course, no one person will embody all these virtues. Some will be long in this and short in that. Where the student needs help is known both by himself and the supervisor, for the Normal School has tried in every way to make known to both the next step needed. Nor will all proceed in the same way to take the beginning step in teaching. Some will start in a merry way, some in a tranquil way, some with enthusiasm, some with serenity. Each according to his own personality will try to help others to self-realization.

Suggestions to Students

1. Study this chapter. Is it too optimistic?
2. Once again, study your own notes; study the records you have left at the Normal School. What is your next step?

PART II
STUDENT TEACHING ACTIVITIES

Chapter VII

General View

It is the purpose of this chapter to set forth a simple analysis of the activities of the student teacher. While the student teacher has certain responsibilities peculiar to his position as a student in a school system, if the outcome of well rounded preparation for teaching is to be realized, the activities of student-teaching will include all the activities of the regularly appointed teacher. The analysis here will be made from this point of view.

In brief, the teacher:

- I. Studies children
- II. Plans, teaches, and records necessary data for individual children
- III. Grows in power to apply principles
- IV. Evaluates and improves his own teaching procedures
- V. Cares for routine
- VI. Cooperates in school activities
- VII. Cooperates in community activities
- VIII. Continuously develops his own fitness for teaching

These outcomes will be treated further in detail in succeeding chapters. The classification is offered in order that the broad and comprehensive nature of the teacher's work may be held clearly in mind. It must be remembered, however, that the teacher's work does not easily resolve itself into elements. At any time in the school day, the activity under way may cross section all of the elements of the above classification. Teaching, like life, is at any moment so bound up with the experiences of the present, the past, and the future, that analysis is very difficult. It is essential to have some form of classification, however, for purposes of thinking through the problems involved in the teacher's work.

130.2

Details have been omitted here purposely, because it is desired to stress the fundamental bigness of the task. But details, too, are important. Many detailed analyses of the work of the teacher have been made. The most comprehensive is the Check-List of Teachers' Activities by Charters and Waples. In it, 1001 activities of the teacher are listed.¹ Mead gives lists by Gray and Armentrout and discusses the activities of student-teaching in detail.² These lists are of value for reference and checking, to note whether or not any important items are being omitted from the student's training.

The best work will be accomplished, however, not by fastening attention meticulously upon minor details but by focusing upon the aims, objectives, and outcomes to be accomplished within the scope of the broader divisions of the work, such as those mentioned on the preceding page. This is particularly true in beginning teaching. Later, as thinking in the large becomes clearer and more definite, more attention will be given to fineness of detail. The movement is from the large to the small, and not, as is often the case, the other way around.

Because of the limited time for student teaching, important experiences will, of necessity, be omitted. In each student-teaching term there are certain experiences which can be had at no other time. For instance, only the students who teach in the beginning of the year can participate in the opening of school; only those teaching at the end of the year can participate in the closing of school. Again, those teaching in the early winter can have the Christmas experiences; those in the spring, Easter. Whenever experiences peculiar to any one term occur they should be capitalized in such a way that the student will set

¹Charters, W.W. and Waples, Douglas. "Check List of Teachers' Activities". Reprinted from The Commonwealth Teacher-Training Study. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois, 1928

²Mead, A. R. Supervised Student Teaching, Johnson Publishing Company, New York, 1930, Chapters X and XI.

standards for similar experiences which will occur in his teaching career. While all possible experiences should be given a student, if student-teaching is conducted in such a way that the student will constantly develop principles, absence of certain experiences will not handicap the student too seriously.

Suggestions to Students

1. Make an inventory of your student-teaching activities. Check it against the Charters and Waples Check-List and the lists given by Mead. Try to get teaching experiences which you seem to be missing.
2. Classify your activities according to the eight divisions given in this chapter.
3. Consider the importance of the activities to the children; to yourself in the light of the outcomes which you have set yourself.

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Chapter VIIIStudying Children

To teach children, one must know children. More than a century ago, Rousseau said, "Study your child, for assuredly you do not know him." These words of Rousseau have lived, for they express forcibly a fundamental truth. They offer the key to all true teaching.

Rousseau grasped the significance of childhood; he saw the need for the study of children, but he could not point out the road. All the ways and means of coming into a knowledge of childhood still needed to be found. Science has not yet turned its searchlight upon human nature. It remained for the century that followed to produce a method for collecting the data of human behavior, and from these to draw conclusions of practical worth. Such development of scientific psychology was necessary before the words of Rousseau could be put into practice.

Various methods of studying children have been tried since the time of Rousseau. Records like those of Shinn¹ giving details of direct observation, and others by Preyer² and Sully³ giving details of their lives as individual children, have been kept. Stores of information about children have been gathered through the questionnaire method of G. Stanley Hall⁴ and his followers. Most of these biographies give only the adult point of view for those that are mere memories of childhood, nevertheless they led the way because they emphasize a true technique of child study. Trained observers at children's institutes, like those at The Johns Hopkins University, and at Yale have collected and studied the data they have gathered. Records of the performances of children in intelligence tests and standard achievement tests have given facts about child growth. All of these

¹Shinn, M. W. *The Biography of a Baby*, Houghton Mifflin, 1900

²Preyer, William: *Senses and the Will*, A. Appleton and Company, N. Y.

³Sully, James S. *Children's Ways*, Appleton and Company, N. Y.

⁴Hall, G. Stanley: *Contents of Children's Minds*, A.S. Barnes Company, N.Y. 1893.

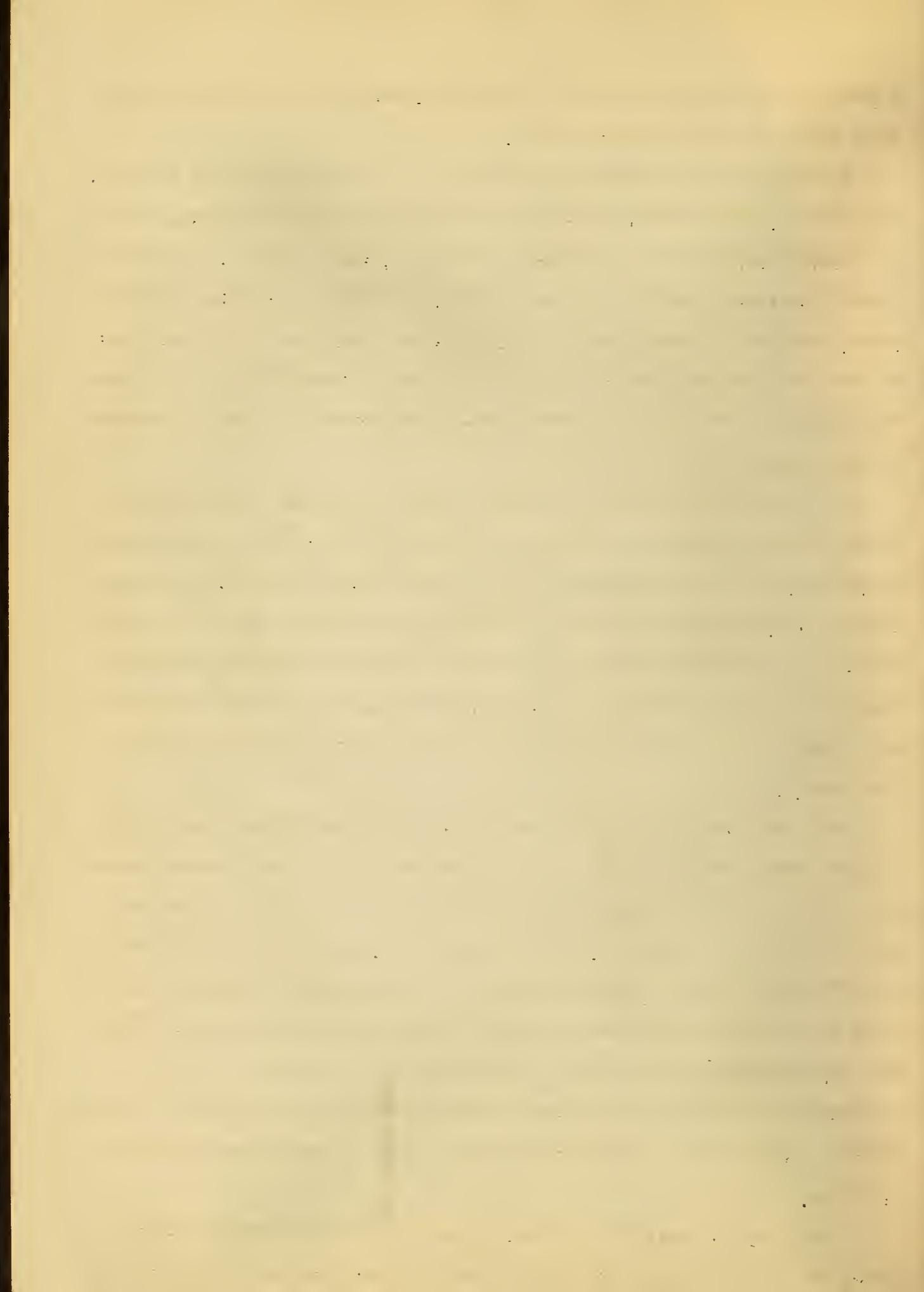
methods have their own strengths and weaknesses, but each has contributed something to the knowledge of child nature.

Practically every school system in Maryland today has collected data which, when studied, yield valuable additions to our knowledge of child growth. There are records available which give such facts as age, time in school, health condition, scholarship record in previous grades, standard test results, ^{reports to parents,} and in many cases, intelligence status. These records give the foundation facts which must be taken into consideration if teaching is to proceed intelligently. It is from these facts that the desired outcomes, both for the class as a whole and for the children composing the class, are set.

One of the early efforts of a student teacher in his work at the training center should be directed to a study of children, making use of all such records as the above. He should try to identify the child with the record. It is often valuable to the student to chart the information on cards for his own use. These charts make it possible for him always to have important information about the children at hand. Gradually as he consults the records and uses the charts which he has made, facts about the children become part of his background in working with them.

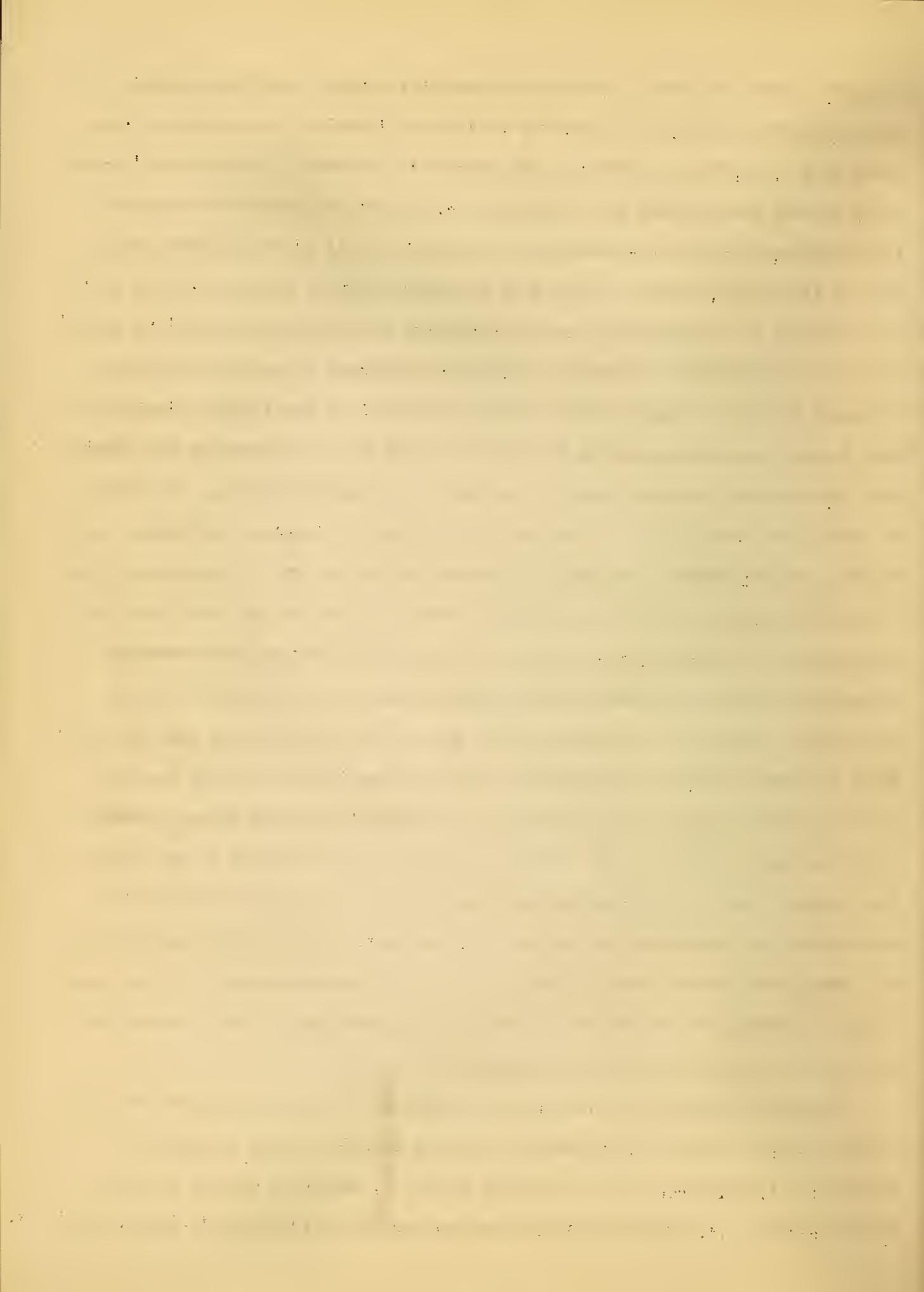
While the study of the above records gives basic information, there is an intimate human knowledge of the children which the study of these records cannot give. All the life of the classroom affords opportunities to the teacher for learning to know his children. Their responses in class exercises, their comments before school, at recess, during a discussion or study period, or on field trips are rich in the detail that the observant teacher will capitalize in his teaching. The actual products of the children - their attempts in writing, in art, or in construction - reveal the tendencies, aptitudes, and needs upon which the teacher builds. Every teacher has such details as the above in mind and uses them in his teaching.

Records can be kept in many ways. One most effective way is the jotting during the day of any significant thing noted about any child. One might wish to



note, for future reference, a child's worthwhile questions about which further information must be supplied in order to continue to stimulate his interest. Evidence that a fourth grade child was not sure of the product of six sevens, might occur in some period other than arithmetic. Surely the need should be noted so that additional specific practice can be provided as well as the immediate help that is likely to be given. Examples of unusual display of temper, of fear, or of fine reaction to responsibility would undoubtedly serve as valuable data for later reference, particularly in schools in which children come in contact with many different teachers throughout their school histories. At first sight, those not used to such note-taking usually think that it must be an interference with teaching. The contrary is quite true. It is part and parcel of teaching. The habit of taking such notes, if it is made part of a teacher's training, can become just as much part of teaching technique as anything that is done in the classroom. In a very little while, a high degree of skill both in selecting the significant and in recording it is developed. One of the training teachers has tried entering these notes at the end of each day upon letter-sized sheets of paper - one for each child - ruled in five columns for the days of the week and four rows for the weeks of a month, one such sheet constituting jottings about one child for one month. In this way brief items about all the children in the class are recorded and dated from time to time in a form easy to read and significant in the trends they quickly reveal. It is obvious that lack of entries upon any child's paper may be often as significant as entries. In fact, one of the greatest services that can accrue from student teaching, not only to the particular centers in which students are working but to the whole field of child psychology, is the gathering of such data about children as is here suggested.

One simple mechanical matter deserves attention; i.e., the filing of the data after it is collected. There should be a folder for every child in which all jottings, all records of a more permanent type, and occasional samples of work should be kept. It is highly desirable to use standard size materials (card index,



envelopes, commercial size letter paper, and filing cards) because they are cheaper and because they can be fitted into standard files. Soon after new students are assigned to a center they should begin their study of these records. If such folders could be kept systematically year by year and studied throughout a child's school career, the problems of his guidance would be greatly simplified.

Students should form the habit of carefully studying children's records and making systematic additions to them. The profession of medicine has long recognized the record as the foundation for the treatment of a patient. No physician today would attempt to give medical advice to a patient without, first, getting the history of the case. Similarly, no teacher today should attempt to teach without getting as much of the history of each child as is available.

Suggestions to Students

1. Work out some plans of your own for utilizing the data on the regular school record cards.
2. Include in your notes the jottings you make about children while observing and while teaching. Of what value are these notes in your future relations to children? What are your greatest difficulties in handling children?
3. Study the folder of some child. Make note of any questions about him that come to your mind. Observe him intensively for an hour. Are your questions answered? Analyze your findings.
4. Read An Inventory of the Habits of Children from Two to Five Years by Ruth Andrus, for suggestions about record keeping.

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CHAPTER IX

Planning, Teaching, and Recording

I. Planning for Large Outcomes

The power of the plan and the strength of the work which it produces are alike dependent upon the force of the original idea, the imaged something that is to be brought to pass. Sometimes, it is true that new light comes as the work progresses and the final results are greater than the original conception, but it is equally true that without a sound and challenging purpose in the beginning, no work of any lasting worth has ever been accomplished. The teacher striving to make changes in human behavior can build no better than he is able to see large purposes clearly. In determining his outcomes for any particular unit of work, the teacher needs first to question the degree to which they further - in ever so small a way, perhaps - the objectives of his school and of the state or city system in which he works, and the aims which he has come to accept as embodying the best ultimate values. A student-teacher needs to have in mind the objectives of the particular school to which he is assigned, its program for the year, its special emphasis and needs, and the objectives of the particular county or city in which the training center is located. He must think also into the far reaches of aims, nation-wide and world-wide, and all of these values must be incorporated through his day by day lesson planning.

In planning for certain definite outcomes to children from any unit of work, the teacher must provide for information, skills, habits, and also for the acquisition of certain generalizations which will help the children meet new experiences in our rapidly changing world.

The generalizations which any learning experience helps to develop are those large conceptions which bring order out of a chaotic world. Individuals come slowly into an understanding of them. "The earth is very large" is a simple generalization, but all life is different to him to whom "large" expresses actual content in terms of days spent in traveling from one point to another, or of

changes of climate experiences in the different zones of the earth than to him whose experiences, actual or vicarious, are bounded by the confines of his home environment.

The product of a group of individuals working cooperatively is greater than the sum of the products of the same individuals working separately. One who studies the history of the Industrial Revolution and who reflects upon it should come into an understanding of the generalizations concerning specialization of labor, interdependence of regions, and the relation of industrial centers to natural resources - as well as into further mastery of the habit of weighing evidence, and of searching authentic sources. A study of the Delmarvian peninsula should promote among other ideas, an understanding of the relation of agricultural areas to markets. Such a study should likewise promote the mastery of certain techniques of map study, transportation routes, Interstate Commerce Commission facts, and other definite learnings. Having once understood such generalizations one is the possessor of the power that comes only to those to whom all life is a gradual revelation of its meaning.

How are the generalizations of most worth determined? They are evolved in many ways by many minds.¹ & ² (See Chapter V) In planning units of instruction the teacher selects those generalizations which the new experiences will best serve to develop.

There is adventure in teaching when one thinks of his immediate plan in terms of its contribution to an ever-continuous development. The teacher is not working in isolation in his own classroom. He is part of something as vast as the farthest stretches of his thinking.

¹Craig, C. S. Tentative Course of Study in Elementary Science for Grades V and VI. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., New York City, 1927.

²Billings. Generalizations in Social Studies. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1929.

II. Making a Long-Term Plan

Just how the human mind works in planning is difficult to say. Perhaps there are as many ways as there are human minds, but there is always exploration, always something of trial and error before the plan begins to take form. In general, decision is made as to the unit of instruction to be planned. The topic of the unit will, in most cases, under public school conditions, be selected from a course of study.

Depending upon the degree of familiarity with the materials involved, the teacher will think of some big conceptions which should be the outcomes of the work. Likewise, he will think of some of the habits and skills which the experience will help to form. All of this is tentative and hypothetical. He must know the subject matter involved before he can appreciate its possibilities. Merely having read and noted information is insufficient. The teacher must have mastered the material to the uttermost limits of his ability and time. His knowledge must go beyond the boundaries of his particular unit. In teaching a unit of study of the Fueblo Indians a teacher must control as much detailed knowledge as possible concerning the tribes and their environment, but in addition he must also control knowledge of other Indian groups, must have visited the National History Museum in Washington if possible, must have knowledge of historical trends, and of present conditions among the Indians, and between the Indians and the Federal government. If he has not thus enlarged his scope of study he cannot possibly lead the children in an efficient study of even this one group of people. Study of sources, excursions - everything that will enrich the teacher's background is essential before the plan can be headed up definitely toward outcomes.

Likewise, he must know the children - their abilities, interests, and previous experience. With knowledge of the materials and the children well in hand, then the teacher is ready with some definiteness to select, first the principles which the experience will help develop, and then the habits and skills which it will help form. Little by little the materials fall into place. The process

is one of selection in the light of the contribution each element will make to the outcomes desired. The final step remains: Given, (1) children of certain aptitudes, interests, and experiences, how can the materials best be used to gain the outcomes for the particular children to be taught? (2) the outcomes desired, (3) the materials available. Certain guiding educational principles give the clue. Skill in their use is slowly acquired through much patient thought. That learning is essentially an active process, and that it proceeds best when the one taught desires to learn, are basic. With such principles in mind and others which have meaning to him, the teacher blocks out a series of activities through which the outcomes are likely to be reached. The first big planning is complete.

Some such planning by the student is done prior to his student-teaching experience as described in Chapter II. The steps will not be repeated here, but attention is once again called, because of its important bearing upon the understanding of the principles upon which the program of the school rests, to the essentially cooperative character of the work. Students, training-teachers, and subject matter specialists work together to produce the best possible plan of work for the children in the training centers.

The big planning complete, there remains decision as to the best way to begin. Here, the children's experiences and interests are the best guides. The beginning to be effective should, above all things, be simple. No long drawn-out "motivation", no circuitous leads, but just a straightforward beginning is best. In the beginning of a study of jungle life in the third grade, the teacher need not "beat around the bush" getting the children to "purpose" to study jungle life. Exposure to good pictures, or to such movies as "Trader Horn", to detailed reading material in texts and references at the children's reading level - are possible starting points. If a child's questions have been the incentive for the group effort, the starting point is obvious.

III. Day-by-Day Planning

The nature of the teaching itself depends at any given time upon a common sense decision as to the best means for attaining an end. Many analyses of teaching have been made into such types as the socialized recitation, the drill lesson, the appreciation lesson, the study lesson, the lecture, the discussion, etc. Sometimes an exercise is predominantly one or another of these types. At times, even, it may represent a pure type. Still more often it cross-sections several types. There is some value in thinking of teaching in such types, but it should be remembered that the classification is arbitrary and logical, and made from the point of view of the external process rather than from the inner changes to be made in children. It is desirable that a teacher should learn - (1) the techniques of handling a discussion, (2) of directing study, (3) of conducting drill. Basic to the mastery of such techniques is (4) the ability to note children's responses, (5) to know when to give and when to withhold help, and (6) how to cause children to want to learn. Certainly in the beginning, the attention of the student-teacher should be centered upon these. His skills will become refined later, but even with the most able students not much more than a beginning can be made in such refinement of technique. Students have rich resources in their notebooks recording observations of all types of lessons during their course known as Introduction to Teaching which was given to them in their freshman year. Indeed, every lesson observed, either in the Campus Elementary School or at the Montebello Demonstration School, should prove a valuable reference for types of lesson planning.

Having started his unit of instruction, from the notes he has taken, the student checks his progress against the outcomes he had planned. He has noted responses of several children, perhaps, who need special direction; he has noted an unexpected turn that the exercise took. Such notes help him in his planning for the next day. Instead of working as before from a long-distance point of view, he now works at a short distance. Because of his notes his outcomes are more

specific. Children's names figure conspicuously, because his experience with the children makes possible modifications in his planning to suit the needs of individuals. Other materials must be found, the need of which was not anticipated in the beginning. Essentially the same process is gone through as in the beginning, the difference being purely one of degree.

Finally, when the outcomes are approximately attained, new outcomes need to be set and new planning in the large started once again. At this point the notes taken from day to day are gathered and analyzed in order to check progress.

IV. Teaching Special Subjects

There has been no attempt in this chapter to go into details of special adaptations of teaching to various subject matter fields. These the student gains in his professionalized subject matter courses. The study which he makes of his notes from these courses will give him the details which it has been impossible and unnecessary to give here. These notes should be used by training-teachers and student-teachers in conference.

V. Coordinating a Major Unit With Other Subjects on Program

In Chapter II, mention was made of the fact that the work of the classroom may be considered as falling to two divisions - a major activity occupying, as it were, the center of interest for the time being and other activities which may be unrelated to the first. A further word needs to be said here with reference to the point of view of teaching that such division of the work implies. Briefly, it is held that at any time in the school life of an elementary child, it is best that his attention be focussed primarily upon some big interest. For instance, if a sixth grade is occupied with the study of the Middle Ages, the period itself is so rich in interest and is so many-sided so far as subject matter is concerned, that it is best not to dissipate energies and distract attention by carrying another unit of instruction at the same time. Art, music, and English are as

much involved in such a study as is history. Hence, these subjects should be used as contributory to the generalizations, skills, and habits which the unit will develop. On the other hand, there is a certain orderly progression in learning which is essential if children are to gain mastery over those tools which will make them effective in society as it is constituted today. Therefore, the day's work includes specially scheduled times when skill in the use of the tools of learning - spelling, language forms, arithmetic, reading, penmanship - is developed. The teaching of most of these rests today upon psychological study. Knowledge of their psychological foundations and the beginning of skill in their application are essential outcomes of student teaching.

To summarize, these should be:

1. A growing appreciation of and power to apply principles.
2. Some ability in planning both with a long view and a short.
3. The appreciation of teaching as essentially a process where one causes another to want to learn and to guide him in such learning.
4. Some ability in rousing the desire to learn in children.
5. Some ability in guiding children in learning.
6. The firmly established habit of recording accurately and of analyzing records as a basis for further planning.
7. Some skill in note-taking as part of teaching.
8. An appreciation of the fact that only a beginning has been made in the art of teaching and that the refinement of his techniques lies in the future.

Suggestions to Students

1. Study the lists of generalizations or fundamental conceptions in the physical sciences and the social studies compiled by Craig and Billings. See those in Chapter V of this bulletin, by the Normal School Faculty. Note the extent to which these generalizations have meaning for you.
2. Study the Record of a Kindergarten Boat and the analysis of the Record; compare with this the analysis you have made of your work.
3. Read "A Plan for the Closer Coordination of Professionalized Subject Matter and Student-Teaching in a Normal School", Reported by the Faculty

of the Maryland State Normal School at Towson. Educational Administration and Supervision, April 1930, pp. 257-286.

4. Check yourself upon mastery of the material contained in and touched by your unit.

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Chapter XCaring for Routine

There are certain mechanical matters that need attention in the classroom just as there are in the home. Two principles are proposed to the student to guide him in handling such matters:

1. Children should share the responsibility of caring for routine
2. Everything of a mechanical nature should be routinized as far as possible

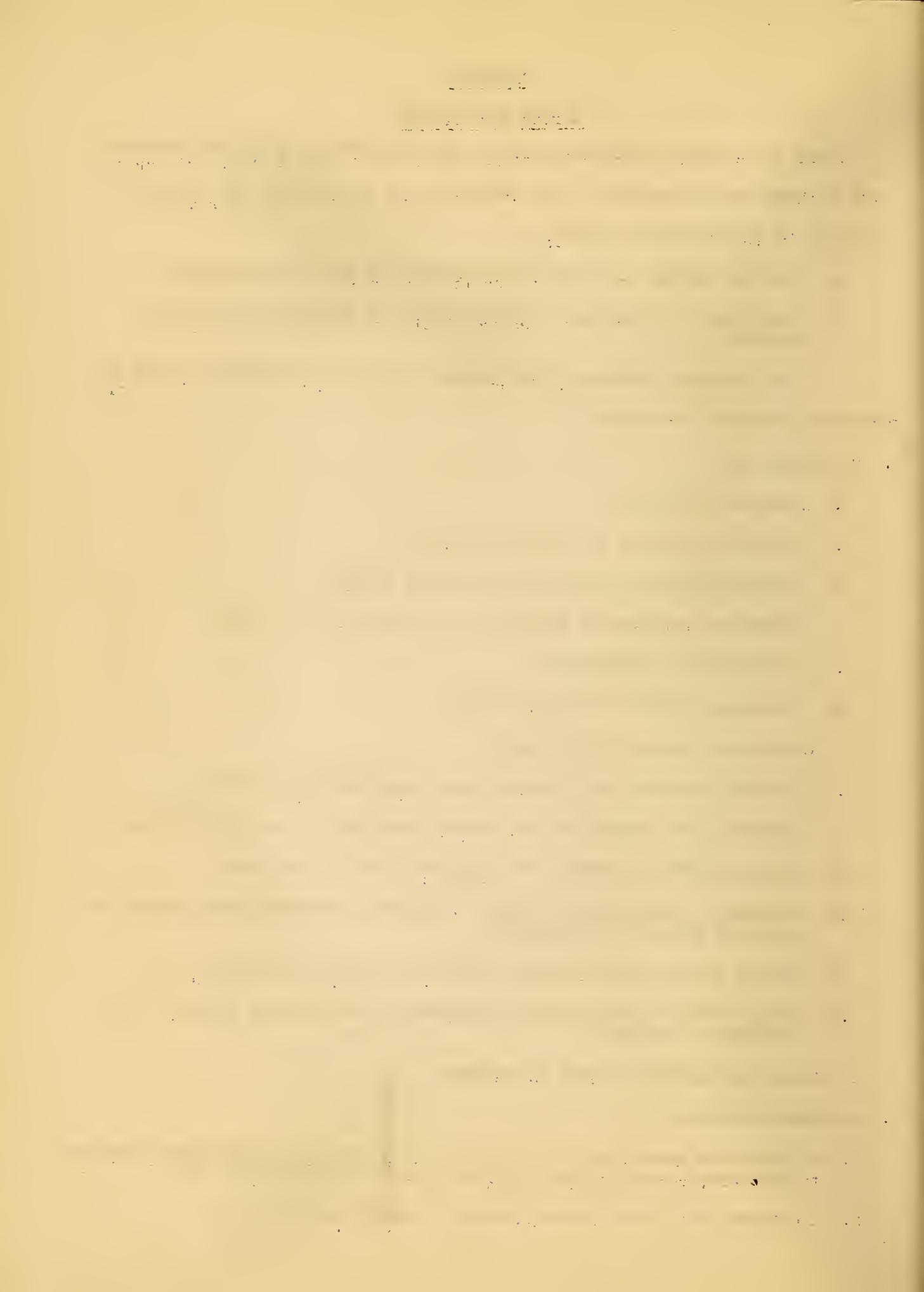
The training teachers of the campus elementary school have listed such mechanical matters as follows:

I. Clerical Work

1. Keeping a roll book
2. Making out reports to be sent to parents
3. Making duplicate reports for the office records
4. Making an inventory of materials and supplies in the room
5. Duplicating a requisition
6. Checking children's health records
7. Checking children's book lists
8. Entering information on record cards required by the State
9. Entering test results on the record cards kept in the office files
10. Filing children's work in the folders in the filing case
11. Keeping a record of the results of informal objective tests made by the students given in the classroom
12. Filing illustrative material, booklets, folders, clippings, etc.
13. Taking notes on the material presented by the Training Teacher in the conference periods
14. Listing questions asked by children

II. Room Housekeeping

1. Appointing committees of children to care for the materials and supplies, the flowers, ventilation, lighting, dusting, blackboards, etc.
2. Keeping the floors free of scraps of paper, etc.



3. Keeping the room cupboard in order
4. Caring for the furniture in the room
5. Keeping materials in order
6. Arranging bulletin boards and display spaces in good taste
7. Adjusting the temperature of the room
8. Keeping bookshelves and tables in good order
9. Having frequent short periods (15 - 20 minutes) of intensive house-cleaning
10. Children keeping their desks in order
11. Frequently changing displays of work
12. Keeping a clean, attractive, artistic room

The list represents the things of a more or less mechanical nature that require attention in our Campus Elementary School. It is not complete nor would it represent the needs of all classrooms. The items, however, will serve as types for discussion. Your Normal School courses in health and hygiene should be constantly put to practice.

The first principle that children should share the responsibility of caring for routine, presents two questions:

1. For what types of routine should they share responsibility?
2. How can their sharing such responsibility be made of educational value?

Obviously, children should be responsible only for doing those things which they are capable of learning to do well. Hence, the responsibilities children take vary with their age. Responsibilities involving clerical work, for example, ought not to be carried to any great extent by children to whom writing is still a slow and laborious process.

Again, children should not be asked to assume responsibilities for the group which each child had better assume for himself. This principle is frequently violated by having one child remove scrap material from the floor which has been

dropped carelessly by other children. Such type of service does not foster good personal habits nor group relationships.

Children should not assume responsibility for reports or records for which the teacher is responsible to administrative or supervisory officers. Often children can assist in such work, but the final form of any official statement should be made by the teacher. Children should be led to see the ethics involved in the official relationships here which makes teacher responsibility a necessity.

Applying the three negative tests proposed to the campus elementary school list, children would not take responsibility for items I - 1, 2, 6, 8, 9, 11 while items 13 and 14 are inherent in the student-teacher's work at the center. With reference to item II, however, children should keep a record of attendance and in the intermediate grades summarize absences, latenesses and other data called for. They can be appointed fire marshals; health wardens; and members of safety councils. They should feel responsibility about the conditions which are recorded and be made aware of the class record in such matters. The responsibility for the roll book as part of the official record of the school, however, belongs to the teacher. The student-teacher should master its techniques.

As to item I - 2, it goes without saying that reports to parents are confidential, to be discussed only by the parents, the child, and the teacher. The child should, ordinarily, share the making of his report with the teacher. To be able to send to parents reports which will gain their active cooperation is a matter of special study for the student. Exception, indeed, might be taken to the item being included under routine matters.

All matters involving test records, health records, such as items I - 6, 8, 9 and 11 form part of the routine which the student-teacher needs to master and for which he must assume responsibility. They, too, form part of an official record and as such must be carried out by the teacher.

Responsibility for items I - 3, 4 and 7 may well be shared by children. If the children are able to do it, the making of duplicate reports checked against

the original offers good training in accuracy in clerical matters. At the same time, the children are really sharing in important work that needs to be done.

Item I - 10 is one of peculiar value to children. They should file their own work in their folders and study the story the folder tells. The student-teacher should try to develop all possible skill in training children to file such material in a profitable way.

Item I - 12 is one in which children should be taught to take responsibility. The habit of filing materials in an orderly fashion is one of the best tools for work. During all of a student's pre-service period of training he should systematically collect and file materials for teaching. During his student-teaching period he should teach children to do the same through having them share the responsibility of filing materials in the classroom.

Responsibility for all of the items under II should be shared by children. In the school as in the home children should be taught from the beginning to share in the work of the group. There is a give and take to such sharing that is a necessary part of everybody's education. The earlier it is begun, the better.

The second question, "How the sharing of responsibility for routine can be made of educative value", has been partially answered in the discussion of the first question. A few further references to the list may help to clarify the matter. Adjusting the temperature of the room can be handled so that all children will have the opportunity of working with the problem of heating in a way that will be of practical value to them. Arranging bulletin boards carries with it many opportunities for the development of principles of orderly and artistic arrangement. The value to a child of filing his own work and of filing clippings, illustrative materials, etc., has been indicated. The more prosaic housekeeping duties like dusting, keeping cupboards in order, etc., can be taught so well that habits of orderliness will become automatic.

The second big principle; that of routinizing everything possible of a mechanical nature, implies the release of the mind from bothersome detail in order

that more attention can be given to work requiring higher thought. The ideal of efficiency has its place. Moreover, one's attitude toward detail, toward the way he performs his simple tasks is reflected in the thinking he does in bigger problems. It is the duty of a teacher so to arrange the routine of the classroom that he and the children alike will be free to think to their fullest capacity.

Routinization is best attained through clear allocation of duties and a definite time for their performance. The first days at the beginning of the school year offer the best opportunity for placing the management of the classroom upon an efficient, and at the same time, democratic basis. The teacher needs to decide what matters will need attention and the extent to which it is wise to throw responsibilities for their performance upon the children; what he will do ahead of time; what he will not do in order that the children may take their part from the beginning.

The allocation of duties is, of course, only the beginning. The change of duties with reference to the needs of individual children requires thought. Having children persist after the first enthusiasm dies down requires skill. Frequent checking on progress, and group appraisal are essential. A definite time for carrying out responsibilities is likewise necessary. Techniques are involved which need thought and experience for their mastery.

The student should carry certain outcomes from his experience in handling routine at the training center: First, the principles suggested for the management of routine should have some meaning for him through his having attempted to apply them in making decisions with reference to routine. Second, his own habits of collecting and filing of material should be deepened. Third, he should have some skill in helping children to want to take responsibility and to persist in carrying it.

Suggestions to Students

1. Study your system of filing materials of instruction. Can you improve it?
2. List all the routine activities carried on in your classroom. Compare it with the list in this chapter.
3. Check the list of routine activities in your room indicating who carries the responsibility for each. Are you satisfied with the allocation?
4. Critically analyze your management of routine in the light of the principles set forth in this chapter.
5. Study the material, Beginning School.¹ Which of the activities are of educational value? Which of the routine matters performed by the teacher should have been carried by the children? Are there any unnecessary items in the list?

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¹Beginning School. Mimeographed material, Maryland State Normal School at Towson, 1929.

Chapter XIParticipation in School Activities

While the classroom is the focus of the teacher's attention, his work must extend to the activities of the entire school and the community of which he is part. Otherwise, he cannot be effective in the classroom. A classroom cannot exist in isolation anymore than can an individual. Hence, a teacher's training should include preparation to participate intelligently in school and community activities.

What are the school activities in which a student should be trained to participate? In so far as is possible, he should be trained in every type of school activity in which he will later participate. Before-school activities and a recess and playground program are very important for the student teacher to practice with. Such training has obviously the limitations in quantity that all other training has in the short period of student-teaching. Likewise, certain seasonal activities will be omitted according as the student-teacher is assigned in one or another of the three student-teaching terms. Therefore, it is important as in all of the other training that emphasis be placed upon the development of principles applicable to the situations which the student does not meet in training.

There are certain school responsibilities, however, which every teacher must assume, and in which any school situation offers opportunity for training. Some of these are:

1. Faculty meetings
2. Extra-curricular activities
3. Social and professional contacts with the faculty
4. Routine matters peculiar to any particular school

The best way for a student to learn what is expected of a teacher in a faculty meeting is to attend the faculty meetings of the school in which he is training. Of course, this assumes well-managed, well-conducted faculty meetings. The responsibility for these rests upon the principal of the school. One of the most



effective means of participating in the training of teachers that the principal of a school has is the faculty meeting. If the student attends faculty meetings with the training-teacher, later discussion of these meetings between them will help him interpret the procedure and form standards of his own for participating in them in the future. There is no reason why, if the occasion demands it, and the principal invites it, that a student should not participate in a faculty meeting. His part is that of a transient member of the faculty whose contributions to the professional life of the school are limited but to him, personally, great benefits may accrue from attendance at such meetings.

At the normal school the students enjoy a varied program of extra-curricular activities aiming to satisfy the needs for expression and recreation of students of varied interests. These extra-curricular activities of the student at the normal school should carry over into his work with children. If his interests and abilities coincide with the extra-curricular activities of the school, he should work with the leaders of those activities as an assistant. He should also be encouraged to contribute any interests of his own to the development of other extra-curricular activities in the school.

How to become an effective member of any new group is a problem worthy of more thought than is usually given to it. One often loses sight of the fact that until a student enters his student-teaching period, he has had no other relationship with a faculty than that of the student-faculty relationship. When he goes into an elementary school for training, he still continues in his student-faculty relationship, but at the same time with his assumption of teaching responsibilities he makes a beginning in faculty-faculty relationships. It is important that at the beginning true standards of professional ethics should be set up. Certainly the ideals of friendly, impersonal relationships among faculty members, of keeping free of cliques and gossip should be formed. Here again the responsibility rests not only upon the training teacher but upon the entire faculty of the school.

"Never say anything about a colleague, or a child, or a parent that you have not

said first to the person concerned" - is a good principle to follow. It shows an ability to get on with people in the right way.

Every school according to its own peculiar conditions develops certain ways of handling routine. Bulletin board notices, distributions of supplies, attendance, the machinery of reporting attendance, etc., are handled with variations in different schools. Again, it is important that these routine matters be well handled in order that a student may develop standards. He should participate in these routine affairs, and should be trained to do them so that he will help the machinery of the school run more smoothly. Such ideals should be established.

The outcomes that student-teaching should leave with the student with reference to participating in school activities may be summarized as follows:

1. The assumption of his new social relationship as a member of a faculty with self-respect, courtesy and responsibility.
2. The desire to give of his own particular interests, and abilities to the extra-curricular life of a school.
3. Knowledge of how to participate effectively in a faculty meeting.
4. Beginning of the formation of the habit of attending to all school routine affairs in a way that will help the machinery of the school run smoothly.

Study of the problem of a student's preparation for participation in school activities leaves one impressed with the important role that is played by the principal and the faculty of the school. What the student carries away from his training as standards of school spirit, professional relationships, faculty meetings, extra-curricular activities, handling of routine, he gets in the main from the school in which he has his training and these are his most vivid patterns. The responsibility of the normal school and the cooperating school systems in the selection of the best possible schools for such training is, indeed, great.

Suggestions for Student Teaching

1. Take notes during a faculty meeting. Discuss them with your training-teacher.
2. Make note of your participation in the routine of the school.
3. Keep a record of your participation in the extra-curricular activities of the school.

Chapter XII.Participation in Community Activities

It has been thirty years since Dewey wrote School and Society. The implications of the title are not yet generally grasped, and certainly its ideal is not realized. That there is some sort of interrelationship between the two will, however, be granted by almost anyone who is interested in social questions. That society influences the school is apparent. The demands of industry affect the curriculum; modern inventions change its equipment. That the school should affect society is the hope of the educator. Somehow by following the best thought that can be mustered and by working tirelessly, he hopes that such changes will be made in children that they will be able to mold a better civilization than the present. Efforts toward that end have been for the most part confined to individuals or small groups, for there has been little attempt either to formulate a national aim or to plan a national attack upon our educational problems. The assumption back of our reluctance to commit ourselves to anything that seems to savor of centralization in education, even in aim, is the idea that if each individual gain the thing that is best for him, it will be inevitable that society will shape itself in a way satisfactory to the individuals that compose it. As against this assumption, there is the spectacle of Soviet Russia launched upon its colossal experiment of revolutionizing a social order through a thorough educational plan affecting/individual within its borders. Two diametrically opposite points of view are exemplified as to the relation of the individual to society and of education to government in the American and the Russian progress. The student needs to think of the principles involved and to try to come eventually to a conclusion of his own as to the relative soundness of the two methods, always keeping in mind that the local group in America has since Colonial days assumed its responsibility for its own progress and to the local group America still looks for responsibility and progress.

Though the consciousness of a national education aim may be lacking, though the machinery of education may be inefficient in many school organizations through-

out our country, and though its purposes may be narrowly individualistic, there is a gripping movement stirring among the people themselves for a better education. School and society in the broadest and most democratic use of the terms are united in the Parent-Teacher movement. Anyone who attended the meeting of the Baltimore County Federation of Parent-Teacher Associations two years ago in our auditorium would have felt forces at work that could not help but make for progress. The occasion was the presentation of the results of the survey of high school education in Baltimore County that had just been completed by Professor Judd. The audience listened with absorbed attention to Professor Judd's analysis of conditions and recommendations. The applause at the end was hearty and genuine. After the report, a business meeting was carried on with correct parliamentary procedure. There were two committee reports - one on health and one on libraries - which showed the kind of achievement that is possible only when a school and a community work together.

The meeting just sketched was county-wide composed of representatives of the many little associations attached to individual schools in the county. The vigorous accomplishment of the large meeting could never have been possible without the work of these little associations. The little associations would not exist without the leadership of the teacher. In this local leadership lies the teacher's opportunity for bringing the school and society together. You can bring to mind many such examples of local participation in school affairs.

It is frequently said by those engaged in social welfare that hope lies in the young; that it is futile to expend energy upon the older generation. It may be difficult to make changes in those of mature years but the older generation, if it finds the right leadership, will join with the school in working for the welfare of the younger generation. Any teacher working in any community can bring to pass that fellowship with parents that can come only when individuals are working together for a great purpose.

How is such fellowship brought to pass? By simple friendliness. The school

doors should be open to parents. They should find warmth of welcome when they come. The teacher should enter into their neighborhood recreation and give of himself to them. Parents should be encouraged to give of their knowledge to the children. The lumber dealer in his yard can give the children a familiarity with wood and, often, with the romance of the woods that the teacher cannot. The little foreign mother can give the children a bit of old world skill in one of the lovely peasant crafts that again the teacher cannot give. The teacher drawing a group of mothers about him can read and study with them so that they gain new insight into the lives and needs of their children.

Again, how important it is that the student should be sent for his training to a school where the principal and the teachers are sensitive to the power that lies in school-community relationships! It is from the school-community spirit that they have developed, and from the examples of contacts with parents that they give that the student-teacher will derive the standards which will guide him in his future school-community relationships. The outcomes should be: 1. A realization that without the hearty cooperation of parents, the efforts of the teacher are almost futile; 2. That the teacher should at all time maintain friendly relations with parents; 3. That he should utilize the resources of parents in teaching the children; 4. That he should through his professional training serve as a guide to parents in their study of the nature and needs of childhood.

Suggestions to Students

1. Read Dewey's School and Society and one of the other references given below.
2. Familiarize yourself with the materials sent out by the Maryland and the Delaware Parent-Teacher Associations.
3. Write an account of a parent-teacher meeting you have attended.
4. Make note in your record book of all the community contacts you experience
5. Make note of the extent to which parents have participated in the life of your classroom.

References

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Patri, Angelo. A Schoolmaster in a Great City. The Macmillan Company, 1917

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Wells, H. G. The Story of A Great Schoolmaster

Chapter XIIIDeveloping Fitness for Teaching

It is debatable whether or not the development of fitness for teaching should be included as a separate item in the classification of a teacher's work. If the other five items are interpreted broadly and carried on conscientiously, fitness for teaching is an inevitable outcome. As such it is a result, the ultimate end to be attained through years of teaching experience. Certainly, a period of student-teaching that leaves the young teacher without the impulse to work continuously for his greater fitness for teaching has failed. The importance of the desire for growth cannot be questioned. Because all the future professional life of the student is dependent upon the attitude he takes from his training toward what constitutes his fitness for teaching the question is treated separately.

The question of what constitutes fitness for teaching is linked with the subtle problem of personality. The term personality is so vague and its interpretation so influenced by individual bias that it is almost impossible for any group to come to a common understanding about it. There is no other problem in the whole teacher-training situation that one approaches with more hesitancy and with more inadequacy. But when one considers the fact that many students fail in teaching who are in the higher ranges of intelligence and scholarship it is very evident that some qualities of personality are also potent factors in teaching success. Of course this is no more true of teaching than of any other vocation. Given approximately the same degree of intelligence and scholarship in any group of individuals some other qualities are the determinants of who will succeed and who fail as a teacher. After all, the development of one's self as a person is basic to developing one's self as a doctor, a secretary, or a teacher.

To be a great teacher one must be, first of all, a great person. One is the combination of his original nature and his experience. One cannot do much to alter original nature, but one can manage to have experiences which will bring out

the best in his nature. Every person has power of some kind. To find what power one has and then get the experiences that will develop that power into achievement for one's own happiness and for the happiness of mankind is indeed no small task.

There may be traits of personality which are peculiarly necessary in teaching but if one examines lists of such traits he is immediately impressed with the fact that the same list might be offered in any other profession. It is not the possession of traits in isolation that matters. The thing that does matter is the kind of pattern made by the combination of traits. Individuals of all possible combinations of traits resulting in many and varied personalities are needed as teachers. Some may have merriment as a dominant note, some tranquility, some enthusiasm, some serenity, some vigor, some gentleness. There are those who by sheer vitality spur others on to achievement; others in a quiet way touch deep and hidden impulses and desires in their students, leading them on to self-realization. All kinds of teaching personalities are needed for all kinds of children.

Accepting the foregoing, the problem of developing student fitness for teaching becomes: How can the natural aptitudes of the student be revealed to him? How can he be guided into experiences which will develop his possibilities? These are, in the last analysis, the universal problem of all types of education.

The whole program of this normal school has been planned with the purpose of the individual development of the student in mind. Through the advisory system, each student finds some faculty member who will give him particular guidance. The professionalized subject matter courses broaden his horizon and bring him deep experiences. The rich array of extra-curricular activities offers the student opportunities for developing his particular talents. The assembly program brings him contacts with great personalities from all over the world. Above all, the unstinting way in which the faculty give of their time in conferences with students has its effect upon the development of individual personality.

Potent as are these factors in student development, there is a peculiar quality in the student-teaching experience that makes it of particular value in revealing the student to himself. Here, for the first time, he assumes almost full responsibility in the profession he has chosen. He is in action in the classroom. Traits show - strengths and weaknesses - that he, himself, did not know he possessed. Now is the time if ever that he needs to look upon himself impersonally, to analyze the causes of his failure and to develop his strengths.

The part that the training-teacher plays is of vital importance. Usually, there is no member of the faculty with whom the student has closer contacts than with the training-teacher. The two work together with a group of children. Nothing can bring people closer together than a group of children as their common problem. A free, frank, friendly attitude on the part of each is desirable, the older teacher giving to the younger of his richer experiences and guidance. The situation is great in its possibilities for development.

In considering the development of his fitness for teaching the student should extract from his teaching experience: 1. A truer knowledge of his possibilities; 2. A desire to grow more fit for teaching; 3. A plan for his own growth. If these three outcomes result, the student will indeed have brought success out of his experiences.

Suggestions to Students

1. Read biographies and see dramas of great personalities. Note the interests and experiences these have had. Note the forces that seemed most potent in shaping their lives.

CHAPTER XIVEvaluation of Student-Teaching

Student teaching needs to be evaluated. It needs, furthermore, to be rated definitely on the letter scale of the seven steps,- A, B, C plus, C, C minus, D, F, used for all rating at the normal school. That student-teaching should be evaluated would be granted by anyone. A student should know very clearly where his work is strong and where weak, in order that he may work toward its improvement. Yet everybody who has attempted to rate a group of students typifying every sort of personality and whose teaching has been done under conditions carrying greatly in difficulty knows how baffling the task is. Two measures have been taken that, it is believed, assure fairness of rating to the student as well as make an evaluation of his work that is of worth to him:

1. Many analyses of his work are made by different visiting members of the normal school staff.
2. All analyses are based upon factual evidence.

As to the multitude of analyses made, first the training teachers, two in number, are concerned daily with the study of the student teacher's work and its evaluation. Members of the faculty who have taught the student in the term prior to his student-teaching and, hence, have worked with him in his preparation for student-teaching, visit him at work. Finally the supervisors and directors of practice are in constant touch with the training centers. All these persons assist in the analysis of the student's work to the end that he may be given as much productive guidance as possible. From the factual evidence submitted by all who have visited the student and from the rating each has made of the particular work he has seen, the director of training gives the final rating.

In analyzing the work, supervisors are asked to make a brief summary of what was seen, to indicate the good points and the poor points in terms of actual occurrence, and to note the suggestions made at the conference with the student.

It can readily be seen that such records made by many supervisors and discussed with the student cannot help but reveal his needs to him and assist him in his growth.

The evaluation of the student's work is made primarily in terms of his ability to apply such educational principles as those outlined in Chapter IV and the degree to which he gives evidence of attaining the outcomes indicated in the chapters concerned with the six divisions of the work of the teacher. These are the primary outcomes desired, and the student's work will be evaluated accordingly.

For convenience these will be summarized here:

I. Studying Children

Does the student observe children carefully and keep systematic records of his observations?

II. Planning, Teaching, and Recording

Does the student show appreciation of and the power to apply principle?

What ability has he in planning?

In the large?

In the daily plan?

Can he rouse the desire to learn in others?

To what extent can he guide children in learning?

Is he developing the habit of recording accurately and of analyzing records as a basis for further planning?

What skill has he developed in note-taking as a technique of teaching?

III. Caring for Routine

To what extent does the student have the cooperation of children in managing routine?

Has he routinized mechanical matters to a satisfactory degree?

What materials of his own has he collected? How well are they filed?

IV. Participation in School Activities

Does the student maintain courteous and responsible faculty relationships?

Does he enter into the extra-curricular life of the school?

Does he show understanding of the teacher's part at a faculty meeting?

Does he cooperate effectively in school routine?

V. Participation in Community Activities

Has the student shown ability to make satisfactory contacts with parents?

Does he indicate the disposition and ability to assume community leadership?

VI. Developing Personal Fitness for Teaching

Is the student intelligently aware of his own professional needs?

Does he show desire for further development?

In order to assist further in the evaluation of the work, a series of seven forms has been developed for purposes of recording data about each student's teaching experience. All are concerned with the evaluation of a student's work and are planned to furnish the student with an instrument of self-evaluation.

Brief descriptions and copies of the forms follow:

Form 1 (purple). Materials Available for Student Teaching. On this sheet titles of the units prepared before going to the training center are entered by the student. At the end of the student-teaching term comments and critical evaluation of the way the unit worked out in practice are entered by the student and the training teacher. The forms are then given to the director of training who discusses their contents with the professionalized subject matter instructors concerned.

Form 2 (yellow). Observation of Student Teaching Record. This form is used by the student and all who observe him teach. It is meant to furnish a record of a single teaching exercise. It is from the accumulation of many of these records that a final summary of student-teaching progress is made. No expression of opinion as to general worth except as such opinion is substantiated by evidence is given on these reports. The student will frequently analyze his teaching needs through study of his reports with those who supervise his work. Since such analyses is always made in terms of principle they do much to help the student develop a body of principles which he is able to apply.

Form 3 (gray). Student's Efficiency Record. This record is made by the training teacher. Since each student has teaching experiences in two centers, there will be two such records. Again, these records are made in terms of evidence, evidence of fitness for or against teaching. What is recorded on these sheets summarizes the observations made by the training teacher.

Form 4 (blue). Record of Student Teaching Activities. It is highly desirable that the second student-teaching experience should build upon the first; that is, that the whole student-teaching experience should be continuous. Processes should not be emphasized in the second experience which have reached the point of mastery in the first. The time is too short. Therefore, the first training teacher sends to the second an account of the experiences the student has had with her, in order that there be as little waste motion as possible.

Form 5 (pink). Record of Student Correctives. Very frequently limitations are shown during student-teaching which have escaped notice both by the student and the instructors at the normal school. The practical demands of teaching children bring all the faculties of a student into play. Hence, weaknesses as well as strengths are shown as never before. Where weaknesses occur - faulty English, poor posture, poor blackboard writing, for example - note is made of such deficiencies, the student told, and the sheet recording the deficiencies sent to the normal school instructor most concerned. The instructor helps the student overcome the difficulty and reports results to the director of training.

Form 6 (white). Final Student-Teaching Report by Director of Student Teaching. From all the data gradually accumulated, the director of student-teaching makes her final estimate. Here, of necessity, judgment does enter in, but it is judgment substantiated in every case by evidence offered by many observers and always in terms of fact.

Form 7 (white). Summary of Student Records Sent to County or City Departments of Education. Form 7 includes in addition to the summary of the student-teacher's record, a summary of the main features of all the rest of his records at the normal school. It attempts to show the supervisor in the field how far the normal school was able to take the student in his preparation for teaching, in order that they may continue the preparation from the point where the work at the normal school stopped.

Of course, all of a student's records are open to him at any time. The student is urged to consult his records and read for himself the history he is making. He is urged never to let a comment with which he does not agree go unchallenged. The records are made to aid the student in becoming the best possible teacher of children. It is hoped that he will use them for that purpose.

Suggestions to Students

1. Study the various forms used for student-teaching. Use them for purposes of self-evaluation.
2. Assign yourself a rating. Ask other students to rate you. Discuss the results.

MATERIALS AVAILABLE FOR STUDENT TEACHING

Teaching III
Form 1

Date _____ Name _____

Term _____ Section _____

UNITS OF WORK

Topic	Illustrative Material*	Grade	Instructor with Whom Prepared

What do you think that you are most ready to teach?

* Indicate whether material includes pictures, pamphlets, commercial exhibits, etc.

Comments on Units by Teacher of Practice

Note: Please make some comment on each unit submitted.

Date.....

Signed.....

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

OBSERVATION OF STUDENT TEACHING RECORD

Ed. 203 or Ed. 304
Form 2

N. B.: Observers will report each activity observed on separate sheet.

Date _____

Time (number of minutes) _____

School _____ Grade _____ Teacher of Practice _____

Student Teacher observed _____

Activity observed (indicate subject) _____

Outline of activity:

Good Teaching Acts

Suggestions for Growth

Rating _____

Signed _____

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

STUDENT'S EFFICIENCY RECORD

Teaching III
Form 3

Student Teacher _____ Term _____ 1st or 2nd half _____ Year _____
Teacher of Practice _____ School _____ Grade _____
Times absent _____ Causes _____
Times tardy _____ Causes _____
Rating (See IV) _____

Notes: (1) Make one copy for each student at the end of each six weeks and forward immediately to the director of student teaching.
(2) In making out this report, reference to "Observation of Student Teaching Record" (Form 2) will be of assistance.
(3) Please use ink.

I. Give all possible evidence of the student's fitness for teaching. (Include personal characteristics)

II. Give all possible evidence against the student's fitness for teaching. (Include personal characteristics)

III. The student has special aptitude in: (music, athletics, dealing with problems of children, etc.)

IV. Think of the most able student teacher you have known; think of the least able; think of the one most nearly average ability. Consider these types as having ratings of A, F, and C respectively. With these types in mind, rate the student you are now considering on the following scale:

F, D, C—, C, C plus, B, A

(Use back of sheet for further remarks)

RECORD OF STUDENT TEACHING ACTIVITIES

Teaching III
Form 4

Student Teacher _____ Term _____ 1st or 2nd half _____ Year _____

Teacher of Practice _____ School _____ Grade _____

Note: This is to be made in duplicate and sent to the director of student teaching. One copy will be forwarded to the teacher of practice with whom the student will next work.

I. The student has had experience in the following:

II. The student needs further experience, particularly in the following:

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

RECORD OF STUDENT CORRECTIVES

Teaching III
Form 5

Student _____

Needs correctives in _____

Reported to _____

Reported by _____

Date _____

Report of Progress Made by Student

Date _____

Signed _____

The MARYLAND STATE NORMAL SCHOOL at TOWSON

FINAL STUDENT TEACHING REPORT BY DIRECTOR OF STUDENT TEACHING

Teaching III

Form 6

Student teacher _____ Term _____ Year _____ Final Rating _____

Times absent _____ Causes: _____

Times tardy _____ Causes: _____

1st Half	2nd Half
School:	School:
Grade:	Grade:
Teacher of Practice:	Teacher of Practice:
Rating:	Rating:
Special Subjects:	Special Subjects:
Subject:	Subject:
Instructor:	Instructor:
Rating:	Rating:
Subject:	Subject:
Instructor:	Instructor:
Rating:	Rating:
Subject:	Subject:
Instructor:	Instructor:
Rating:	Rating:

Remarks:

(Signed) _____

Director of Student Teaching

SUMMARY OF STUDENT RECORD SENT TO COUNTY OR CITY DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

Student _____ Address _____ Tel. _____
(Last Name) (First Name)

Date of Graduation _____ Course _____

SCHOLARSHIP RECORD (Until End of Term 2, Sr. Year):

Highest Subject Rating: _____ Lowest Subject Rating: _____ General Average: _____

EXTRA - CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES:

Student Participated In: _____ Student Was Outstanding In: _____

JUNIOR PARTICIPATION RECORD:

School _____ Grade _____ Teacher _____ Rating _____

School _____ Grade _____ Teacher _____ Rating _____

Remarks: _____ Final Rating _____

SENIOR STUDENT TEACHING RECORD:

School _____ Grade _____ Teacher _____ Rating _____

School _____ Grade _____ Teacher _____ Rating _____

Final Rating _____

Evidence of Student's Fitness for Teaching:

Evidence Against Student's Fitness for Teaching:

Student Showed Special Aptitude in:

Student Needs Further Supervisory Help Particularly in:

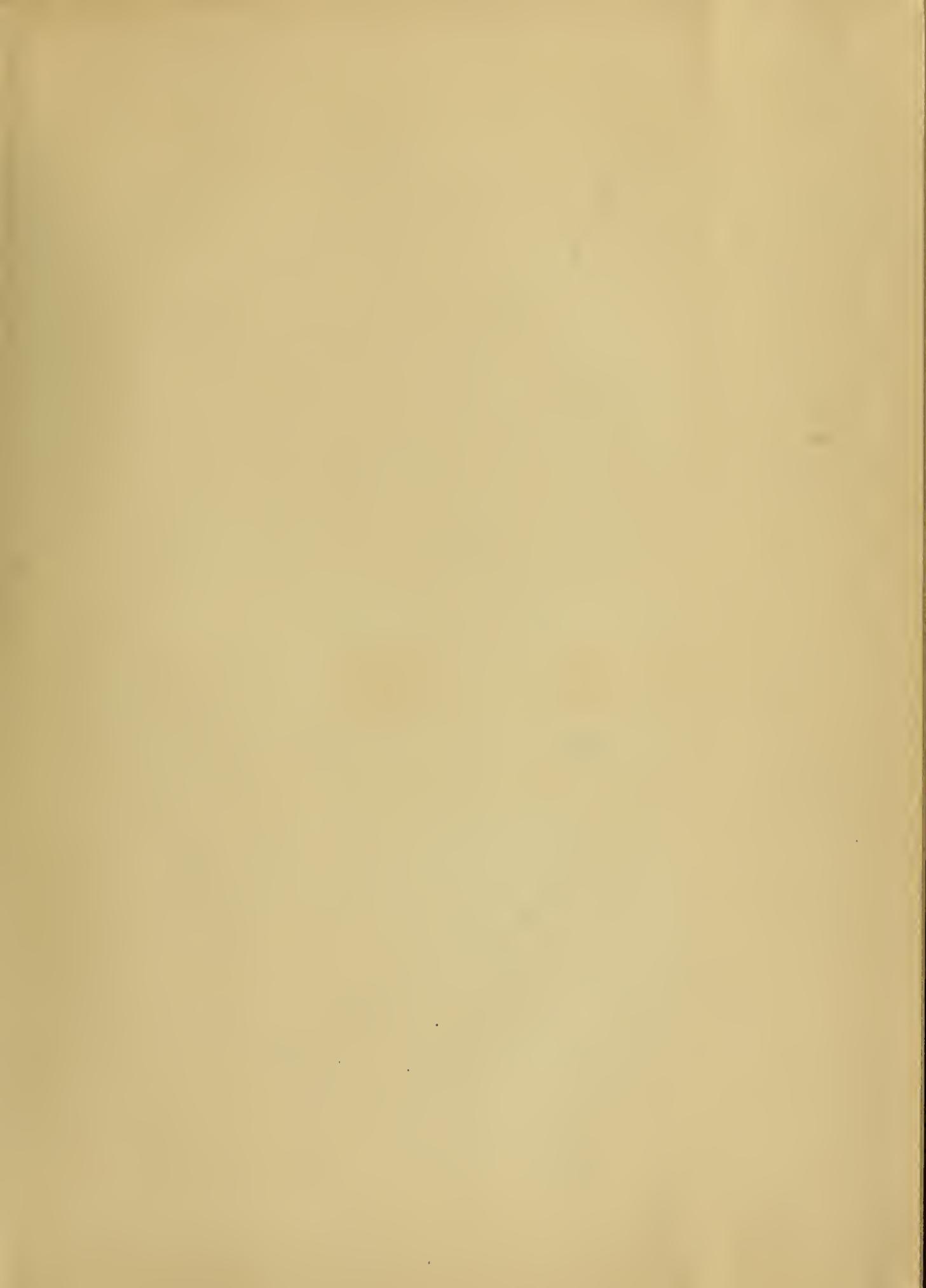
Recommendation of Director of Practice for Grade Placement: _____

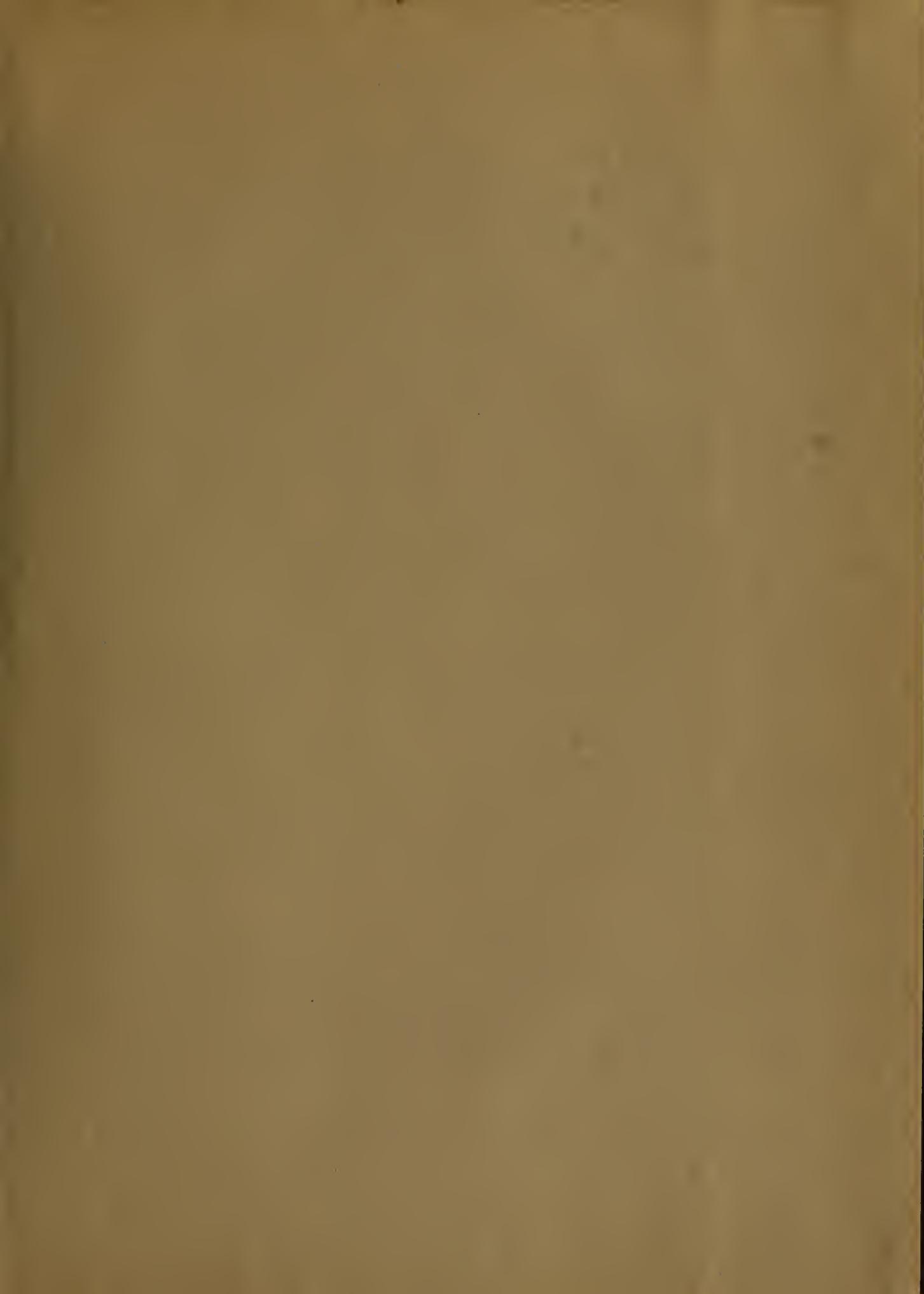
Student's Choice of Grade _____ of School _____

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